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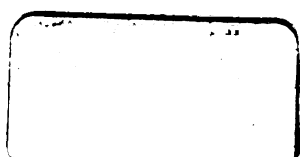
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2976  
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ENLARGED:

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M,DCCC,XVI.

With an APPENDIX.

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————— " *Dii proximus ille est*  
*Quem ratio, non ira, movet; qui, facta rependens,*  
*Consilio punire potest.*" CLAUDIAN. xvii. 227.

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VOLUME LXXX.

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For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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### ERRATA in Vol. LXXX.

- Page 170. l. 15. for 'fact,' r. *facti*.  
206. note, l. 2. add a colon after 'poem.'  
318. Art. 15. l. 13. read thus,  
    'The keen autumnal breeze of night  
    Subsiding at the peep of light,' &c.  
387. l. 29. for 'Ocara,' r. *Ocana*.  
418. l. 4. for 'belong,' r. *belongs*.  
428. l. 12. for 'sudden,' r. *abrupt*.

# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For M A Y, 1816.

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ART. I. *Miscellaneous Works of Edward Gibbon, Esq.* With Memoirs of his Life and Writings, composed by himself: illustrated from his Letters, with occasional Notes and Narrative. By John Lord Sheffield. Vol. III. 4to. pp. 700. With a Portrait of Mr. Gibbon. 2l. 8s. Boards. Murray. 1815.

WHEN we recollect that the two former volumes of this collection were given to the public twenty years ago, (and reported in vols. xx. and xxv. of our present series,) we might be tempted to ask the noble editor, "*Quæ tantæ tenuere moræ?*" Distinguished, however, as his Lordship is in general by promptitude both of conception and of execution; we shall not urge such an inquiry on this occasion: nor do we mean, on the other hand, to imitate the complaisant example of a reverend dignitary, who gravely affirms in the volume before us, (p. 677.) that the names of his Lordship and Mr. Gibbon will go down to posterity 'with as much just distinction as any of the memorable *duets* of antiquity.' Still, if we never indulged in all the effusions of admiration which were once excited by the novelty and magnitude of Mr. Gibbon's History, we turn with pleasure to the task of reporting this final addition to his miscellanies. Like the second of the previous volumes, the present contains a number of dry and uninviting passages, but it also exhibits a clear view of the gradual advance of a zealous and persevering student. If other authors have equalled or surpassed Mr. G. in the variety of their attainments, few deserve equal credit for attentive habits of reading, and for a steady adherence, year after year, to the department which formed the proper object of his labours. It very seldom happens, also, that we are furnished with such copious means of tracing the progress of a man of letters; the pieces now printed forming, with the preceding volumes, materials for a complete history of his studies. We have, therefore, laid the three quartos before us, and have endeavoured to collect from the whole all that seemed likely to be useful towards exhibiting a view of the early pursuits, the

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fluctuating projects, and the eventual success of this distinguished candidate for historical fame. All this we shall endeavour to embody into a brief account of his life; trespassing very little, we hope, with repetitions of particulars which we had formerly stated; introducing from the fragments and essays now published such extracts as may conduce to the illustration of the narrative; and reserving a critical notice of them for a separate and subsequent article.

In point of inheritance, Mr. Gibbon had that kind of middle prospect which would have justified the choice of a genteel profession, without enabling him to dispense with an addition to his patrimonial income. He was an only son, and was educated partly at a public school, partly at home in consequence of the delicate state of his health. His memoirs (vol. i.) record a number of amusing but trivial particulars respecting his boy-hood; and it appears that, although too much indulged at that age to go through the severe study necessary for the acquisition of languages, he passed even in his early years much of his time in reading: which, though it was as desultory as we might expect from a youth who was abandoned to his own guidance, was chiefly directed towards history. When he was entered a gentleman commoner of Magdalen College, Oxford, he complained that the laxity of that seminary in those days left him as much to his own management as paternal indulgence had done at home. Thus situated, his reading, when pointed towards divinity, took a singular direction, (as the world has long since been informed,) and had the effect of making him, at the age of seventeen, a proselyte to the Catholic faith. His father consequently sent him to Lausanne, to the house of M. Pavillard, a Protestant clergyman; with a communication of the young man's strange conduct, and explicit directions to keep a strict watch over his future studies. Of this change the historian himself says, "Instead of a splendid residence in Magdalen College, I found myself in a small room, an old house, and a gloomy street; the most unfrequented part of an unhandsome town."

The assiduity of his application, however, was much promoted by this exclusion from scenes of amusement, and by his want of command of money: the French language, in particular, he cultivated with success; using it not only as the channel of conversation, but as the medium for committing to paper his notes and observations on English and Latin authors. He made no progress in such exercises as riding or fencing, having little turn for bodily activity, in consequence of constitutional delicacy. A few years sufficed to open his

eyes with regard to his religious aberration, and to enable him to redeem the time lost in the outset of his pursuits. In studying French and Latin, he adopted a method which he strongly recommends; viz. that of making choice of a classic writer, such as Cicero, translating one of his epistles into French, letting it lie some time till the original was forgotten, and then re-translating it from French into Latin. Middleton's life of Cicero pleased him more in his youth than subsequently: but he speaks of the works of the Roman orator and Xenophon as most eligible books for a liberal scholar, both for their style and for their matter. Cicero's epistles afford, in his opinion, the models of every kind of correspondence, and his productions may be said to form a library of eloquence and reason. — He read much of Latin at Lausanne, and furnished a striking example that a youth, who has been idle in the bustle of a college, may become assiduous in retirement. It was his rule never to allow a difficult or corrupt passage to escape him; to consult a number of commentators; to make repeated abstracts, and even to let them branch out into essays. He thus read, three times, Terence, Virgil, Horace, and Tacitus; and he soon became eager to peruse the Greek models of these celebrated writers. It was now that he regretted the waste of his early years, when he might have conquered the more irksome part of the study of Greek: on the present occasion, he made a certain progress in that language: but, being without the stimulus of emulation, he withdrew from the barren task of searching words in a lexicon, to the free and familiar conversation of Latin authors. At a subsequent period, he resumed Greek, and carried his knowledge in it to a considerable proficiency. Logic he studied with great care and advantage: but in mathematics he went only to a limited extent, and never regretted that he desisted from that pursuit before his mind was "hardened by the habit of demonstration so destructive of the finer feelings of moral evidence, which must however determine the actions and opinions of our lives." He proceeded to read Grotius and Puffendorf, and liked their commentator Barbeyrac: he studied also Locke, and adopted his plan of a common place-book. He read a great part of Bayle's Dictionary: but his attention was at this time more particularly given to Pascal's Provençal Letters, "which teach the management of the weapon of grave and temperate irony on serious subjects;" to De la Bleterie's life of Julian; and to Gianoni's Civil History of Naples, which "displays the abuse of sacerdotal power and the revolutions of Italy in the dark ages."

His attentive habit of keeping notes of the substance of his reading, and of the reflections produced by it, has enabled the noble editor of the present volume to exhibit specimens of Mr. Gibbon's composition at this early period of life. The principal of these are

(1.) "Observations on Sallust, Cæsar, Cornelius Nepos, and Livy," written in Mr. G.'s 19th year. The principal remarks relate to Livy, and discover a mind already keenly alive to the loss of that author's invaluable Decades. Mr. G. had been at this time little more than twelve months in a French house, and had not acquired the habit of writing that language with accuracy, as we perceive from such expressions as "*Des autres veulent*" instead of *d'autres veulent*; "*quelques de qualités*" for *quelques unes des qualités*, &c.: but, even in these juvenile efforts, we see marks of a habit of arrangement and of a pains-taking course of study.

(2.) "The remarkable Epochs of the History of Greece and Egypt considered in reference to the Chronology of Sir Isaac Newton," written in Mr. G.'s 20th year, and in French also. This essay consists of a comparison of the Newtonian chronology with that of other writers, concerning such points as the æras of Sesostris, Dido, Æneas, &c.

(3.) "Dissertation on the Weights, Measures, and Monies of the Ancients, with a few Tables constructed on these Principles," in his 21st year. The principal authorities for this compilation were Freret, Arbuthnot, Bishop Hooper, Greaves, and a German author named Eisenschidt. It is followed by a correspondent Dissertation on the Weights, Measures, and Monies in use during the time of the Lower Empire, not only in Greece and Italy, but in France, Germany, Spain, and such parts of Europe as possessed any thing like a regular government. These tracts exceed seventy 4to. pages, and, however imperfectly finished, must be considered as very useful accompaniments to the study of history.

In 1758, Mr. G. returned to England, and was kindly received by his father; the flattering report of Pavillard, and his own progress, sufficing to efface the remembrance of his early trespass. He was now of an age to be introduced to the society of his father's friends, and particularly to Mallet, by whose advice he was directed to study the style of Swift and Addison. He speaks in his Memoirs with approbation of this advice; yet, as we have formerly observed, it would be difficult to find, in the whole range of our classics, a greater contrast than his own style made with that of these standards of simplicity and purity. Mr. G.'s father had a numerous acquaintance in London: but the reserved manners of his son led



led him to pass many solitary hours with his books, and to be thankful for an evening-call from Mr. Elmsley, the bookseller, or other unassuming friends. In the country, he had it less in his power to avoid being present in the mixed parties at his father's house; and he regularly regretted the full moon as the season of these uninstrusive assemblages. Amid these interruptions, his great gratification was the receipt of a newly purchased book from London; and his plan was, after having satisfied the first impulse of curiosity by inspecting the title-page and the contents, to meditate, in a solitary walk, on all that he as yet knew in connection with the subject treated in his new acquisition. His favourite works were our own authors since the Revolution; and his attention, as we have mentioned elsewhere, (M. R. vol. xx. p. 308.) was eagerly directed to the lately published histories of Hume and Robertson. "I was not," he says, "without hopes of one day imitating the well turned periods of Robertson; but the calm philosophy, the careless, inimitable beauties of his friend, often forced me to close the volume with mixed sensations of delight and despair."

The principal result of his studies at this period of his career was the composition of "An Essay on the Empire of the Mèdes, by Way of Supplement to the Dissertations of Messrs. Freret and De Bougainville;" composed, probably, in his 24th year. This is a work of very considerable labour and extent, occupying sixty 4to. pages, and finished with considerable attention to style. At this early period, he had acquired no small share of the clearness and vivacity of the best French authors, without falling into that inflated tone which has been so much regretted in his subsequent compositions. The "Essay" is dry, but this fault arises from the nature of the subject rather than from the inexperience of the writer, who gives proof of attentive research, and conveys his meaning in short perspicuous sentences. The young writer felt the inexpediency of offering such an Essay to the public, and was contented to leave it among his MSS., whence it has been extracted for the first time for the volume before us. Gibbon, indeed, though sufficiently conscious of his attainments, had many scruples about making his appearance as an author, and was induced to print his first publication, "*Essai sur l'Etude de la Littérature*," less by a desire of literary reputation than as a specimen of his familiarity with the French language, and of his fitness to act the part of secretary to any of our diplomatists abroad. The subject was suggested by an anxiety to recommend that which was not common in France, the classics being neglected in that

country; and the *Académie des Inscriptions*, the guardian of classical studies, ranking only third in the Royal Societies of Paris. He submitted the manuscript to the revision of Dr. Maty; who, though born in Holland, might be called a Frenchman, and who was settled in London. Dr. M. had been the editor and in a great measure the writer of eighteen volumes of the *Journal Britannique*, published from January 1750 to December 1755; and, "far different from his angry son, he handled," says Mr. G., "the rod of criticism with the kindness and reluctance of a parent."

Of this juvenile composition, (printed in 1761,) Mr. G. distributed a number of copies among his friends, and received of course a great many compliments. With the public, it succeeded on the Continent, but not in England. The chief fault of the essay, as the author acknowledged afterward, consisted in an obscurity and abruptness which always fatigue and may often elude the attention of the reader; and which must be admitted to have been, in most cases, the consequence of affectation, or of the desire of expressing a common idea with sententious or oracular brevity. Such, says Mr. G., was the consequence of imitating Montesquieu. To this fault must be added a total want of method or connection: — but what could be expected from a writer at the age of twenty-two? Still, when Mr. G. looked back, in his advanced years, to this essay, he could not help feeling, like Sir Joshua Reynolds, that his improvement in a long interval had fallen much short of what he had conceived it to have been.

The war with France having led to the establishment of the militia on a scale of considerable extent, Mr. G. and his father took their shares in this new kind of military duty. His service lasted several years, and proved a considerable interruption to his literary pursuits: but it had the effect of rubbing off the rust of the closet, and of giving him a practical knowledge of life; while the attention which it led him to give to the study of tactics, and particularly to the "*Mémoires Militaires*" of Guischardt, was not without its use in the subsequent labours of his celebrated history. Before the time came for disembodiment of the militia, Mr. G. had risen from the rank of a Captain of grenadiers in the Hampshire regiment to that of Lieutenant-Colonel-Commandant.

In January 1763, Mr. G. undertook a continental journey. He passed several months at Paris, and dedicated his morning-hours to the inspection of churches and palaces, of royal manufactures, and of collections of books and pictures; in which he declares Paris to be as much superior to London as the country and country-seats of France are beneath those of England.

England. The causes of the magnificence of the French capital are the wealth of the church, and the unauthorized application of public money by the sovereign.—Mr. G. had taken various introductions to French literati, but found them in a great measure unnecessary, one acquaintance leading to another; so that he became known to a wider circle in Paris in three months than he had formed in London in three years. He could not help making the remark that the authors and artists of Paris, when he conversed with them alone in a morning-visit, were much less vain and more reasonable than he observed them to be in a large circle.

He next revisited Lausanne, after an absence of five years, and found little alteration among the friends of his youth. He lived here, not with his preceptor, Pavillard, but at a boarding-house kept by a man of rank, M. de Meseray, whose manners were such as to give him the appearance of a nobleman spending his fortune in entertaining his friends. It was at this house and at this time that Mr. G. became acquainted with Mr. Holroyd, afterward Lord Sheffield, and began an intimacy which lasted thirty years. He now prepared for a tour to Italy, by studying the travels of Nardini, Donatus, and others, with the fourth volume of the *Roman Antiquities* of Grævius; and he afterward dissected the *Italia Antiqua* of Cluverius, who examined on foot almost every scene noticed by antient writers. Mr. G. also read descriptions of Italy by Strabo, Pliny, and Pomponius Mela; D'Anville's *Mesures Itinéraires*; Bergier's *Histoire des grand Chemins de l'Empire Romain*; and the works of Addison and Spanheim. He then proceeded on his tour, with all the benefits of thorough preparation. He passed four months in Rome, under the guidance of Byers, the antiquary; and, though exposed to occasional embarrassment from not speaking the language, he reaped, on the whole, a rich harvest of information from his travels in Italy. The result of his previous study is given in the volume now published under the title of "*Nomina Gentisque antiquæ Italiæ*," a geographical and historical composition in French, divided into sixteen sections, treating of nearly as many portions of the Italian peninsula. This comprehensive abstract occupies above a hundred pages, and is, perhaps, the most complete monument of his attentive and careful habits that is contained in his miscellaneous works. We have heard it recommended as a fit object for a separate publication, for the use of the more advanced boys in our schools, and as a substitute for the accurate but dull geographical work of Dr. Adam. Mr. G. has interspersed his local notices by liberal quotations from the classics, which

would relieve, to a youthful mind, the tedium of topographical description: but, to fit his work for the purpose just mentioned, an index and a translation either into English or Latin would be necessary.

Mr. G. returned home in 1765, and lived, as before, with his father, from whom he received the most affectionate treatment: but he was on the whole uncomfortable at finding himself drawing to his thirtieth year without having embraced a profession, or given a settled aim to his pursuits. He now, therefore, determined to turn his thoughts to a publication on some historical topic. His attention was for some time fixed on the life of Sir Walter Raleigh; and, on relinquishing this plan, he devoted himself with considerable ardour to an historical composition on the early part of the history of Switzerland. He had formed, when at Lausanne, a close intimacy with a Swiss gentleman named Deyverdun, who was now in England; and the imagination of both these young candidates for fame kindled at the hope of delineating, in animated colouring, the dawn of Swiss liberty. They continued more or less occupied with this subject during two years, and made a considerable progress in their task; the result of which is now given to the public in an historical tract occupying nearly sixty pages, which is not, like most of the materials in these volumes, a series of memoranda, but a composition prepared and finished, as far as it went, for the public eye. Mr. Hume, to whom Gibbon submitted the manuscript, was justified in remarking that the style was too lofty for English readers, and bore too evident marks of an imitation of French models: but, on comparing it with the subsequent productions of Mr. G., it will be found marked by fewer of those deviations from simplicity than his far-famed history. Among the passages most deserving of attention in this fragment of Swiss history, is the account (p. 113.) of the conspiracy formed by three spirited citizens in 1307 for the independence of their country; and of the memorable conflict at Morgarten in 1315, in which a band of intrepid peasants, favoured by localities of no common kind, succeeded in repelling and routing the army of the Duke of Austria.

The plan of a history of Switzerland was abandoned by Mr. Gibbon and his coadjutor, partly in consequence of their unacquaintance with German, the language in which most of the materials were to be sought, but more, we apprehend, on account of the limited interest of the subject. Without believing *à la lettre* that Mr. G. conceived the design of writing the history of Rome when contemplating the capitol, we can readily imagine that he aimed from an early period at sending

forth a work which might attract towards him the attention of the men of letters not only in England but in Europe. Much time and intermediate labour, however, were necessary to prepare himself for such a task; and a part of this interval was filled up by his contributions during two years to the *Mémoires Littéraires de la Grande Bretagne*, a periodical work in French, planned by himself and his friend Deyverdun, with the view of keeping foreigners apprized of the state and progress of English literature. The first volume came out in 1767, and contained a review by Gibbon of Lord Lyttleton's *Henry II.*, "a work in which sense and information are not illustrated by a single ray of genius." The second volume was published in 1768, and had among other papers a reply by Hume to "Walpole's Historic Doubts." The materials for the third volume were almost completed, when Deyverdun was enabled to change his situation for the better by going abroad to travel with a young pupil, and the undertaking was relinquished.

Mr. Gibbon's next publication was a disquisition in opposition to the hypothesis maintained by Warburton respecting the sixth book of the *Æneid*. He dwelt with pleasure on topics connected with a composition which he justly termed the "most pleasing and perfect of Latin poetry:" but, his antagonist being silent, the pamphlet attracted little notice, although it was praised by Heyné, by Hayley, and lately by Dr. Parr. "Warburton's book," says Mr. G., (*Memoirs*, p. 139.) "has lost much of its first fame: its chief merit consists in the episodes on the Greek philosophy, the hieroglyphics of Egypt, &c. which are intitled to the praise of learning, imagination, and discernment."

At last, Mr. Gibbon bade adieu to minor essays, and directed his attention to the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire." He was already familiar with the classics, down to Tacitus and Juvenal; and he now investigated, with the pen almost always in his hand, the original records, both Greek and Latin, down to Ammianus Marcellinus, from the reign of Trajan to the last emperors of Rome. Together with these he studied medals, and inscriptions of geography and chronology; and he found great advantage in fixing and arranging his scattered materials by the collections of Tillemont, a writer of character and accuracy. For the middle ages he studied Muratori, Sigonius, Maffei, Baronius, and Pagi. The Theodosian code, with the commentary of Godefroy, was highly useful to him in an historical light: it may be called, in fact, a full and capacious repository of the political state of the empire during the fourth and fifth centuries. This course of study began in

1771,

1771, but was for a long time mixed with collateral occupations. Mr. G. continued to read again and again the classics in Latin, French, Italian, and in some measure in Greek. He prepared in manuscript an essay on the *Cyropædia*, perused Blackstone three times, and made a copious and critical abstract of his work. After his father's death in 1770, he was obliged to occupy two years in finally retiring from a country life, and making a clear arrangement of his patrimony. He was never affluent, but considered himself as possessing the happy medium; being inclined to think that it would not have been his lot to become an historian had he been either richer or poorer. From the year 1772, he lived in London, and increased his library as well as the number of his connections, being chosen a member of several literary clubs.

It was now that he undertook in earnest to prepare his first volume for the press, and laboured in particular to form his style. He wrote his first chapter three times, always in quest of a middle tone between a dull chronicle and a rhetorical declamation. He soon became tired of the practice of reading a manuscript to friends, under the conviction that an author is the best judge of his own performance; although he was still satisfied of the utility of occasional advice from such a veteran in literature as Hume.

The publication of the first volume took place in 1776. It was offered to Elmsley: but, that cautious disciple of the old school having declined the adventure, it was undertaken by Messrs. Strahan and Cadell. Mr. G. intended at first to publish only 500 copies, but this number was doubled by the "prophetic taste" of Mr. Strahan. The printed sheets discovered many blemishes of style which had been invisible in the manuscript, but the author was soon amply repaid for all his solicitude. The book attracted great notice, and the edition was sold, not indeed, as Mr. G. insinuates in his *Memoirs*, in a few days, but in the course of a few months: the magnitude of the subject, the novelty of the style, and the extent of research displayed, all concurring to excite the public attention. We have noticed in another place (*M. R.* vol. xx. p. 442.) several of the letters written on this occasion to the author. It is true that such addresses are often little more than complimentary effusions, and are sometimes found at variance (as in the case of Horace Walpole's epistolary panegyric on Dr. Robertson) with the real sentiments of the writer as eventually disclosed: but a notable exception from this train of flattery is afforded by the manly letters of one of our first-rate antiquaries, to the new historian.

MR. WHIT-

‘ MR. WHITAKER to EDWARD GIBBON, Esq.

‘ Dear Sir, *Manchester, April 21st, 1776.*

‘ I have just finished your History: and I sit down to thank you for it a second time. You have laid open the interior principles of the Roman Constitution with great learning, and shewn their operation on the general body of the Empire with great judgment. Your work therefore will do you high honour. You never speak feebly, except when you come upon British ground, and never weakly, except when you attack Christianity. In the former case, you seem to me to want information. And, in the latter, you plainly want the common candour of a citizen of the world for the religious system of your country. Pardon me, Sir, but, much as I admire your abilities, greatly as I respect your friendship, I cannot bear without indignation your sarcastic slyness upon Christianity, and cannot see without pity your determined hostility to the Gospel.’ —

‘ MR. WHITAKER to EDWARD GIBBON, Esq.

‘ Dear Sir, *Manchester, May 11th, 1776.*

‘ You have received my animadversions upon your History with candour. I was particularly pointed, I believe, in what I said concerning the religious part of it. I wrote from my feelings at the time; and was perhaps the less inclined to suppress those feelings from friendliness, because I had two favours to beg of you. I hope, I shall ever be attached, with every power of my judgment and my affection, to that glorious system of truth, which is the vital principle of happiness to my soul in time and in eternity. And in this I act not from any “restraints of profession.” I should despise myself, if I did. I act from the fullest conviction of a mind, that has been a good deal exercised in inquiries into truth, and that has shewn (I fancy) a strong spirit of rational scepticism in rejecting and refuting a variety of opinions, which have passed current for ages in our national history.

‘ With regard to what I said concerning your British accounts, I meant not to blame you, either for not saying all that you knew concerning our island, or for not bringing in the intimations of Richard on Ossian. I blamed you only for not noticing some particulars, that made a necessary part of your narration, and are mentioned by the best authorities. And I remember particularly, that in your description of the Empire about the time of Severus, and in your short intimations concerning the state of the towns within it, you specify only London and York as remarkable towns in Britain, though Tacitus and Dio give us such an account of Camulodunum, and though Chester appears from an inscription and a coin to have been then a colony. And in the description of those two which you mention you take no notice, I think, of the sweet and pleasant situation of London, so strikingly marked by Tacitus, and of the Temple of Bellona, and of the Palatium or Domus Palatina, in York, so expressly specified by Spartian. —

‘ These were some of the remarks that forced themselves upon my mind, as I read your work. Others also arose of a different nature

nature and inferior importance, as that the native language of Gaul and Britain was driven by the Romans to the hills and mountains; that the Druids borrowed money upon bonds payable in the other world, &c. —

‘ These, however, if never so true, are but trifles light as air in my estimation, when they are compared with what I think the great blot of your work. You have there exhibited Deism in a new shape, and in one that is more likely to affect the uninstructed million, than the reasoning form which she has usually worn. You seem to me like another Tacitus, revived with all his animosity against Christianity, his strong philosophical spirit of sentiment, and more than his superiority to the absurdities of heathenism. And you will have the dishonour (pardon me, Sir,) of being ranked by the folly of scepticism, that is working so powerfully at present, among the most distinguished deists of the age. I have long suspected the tendency of your opinions. I once took the liberty of hinting my suspicions. But I did not think the poison had spread so universally through your frame. And I can only deplore the misfortune, and a very great one I consider it, to the highest and dearest interests of man among all your readers.

‘ These must be very numerous. I see you are getting a second edition already. I give you joy of it. And I remain, with an equal mixture of regret and regard,

‘ Your obliged Friend and Servant, J. WHITAKER.’

A correspondence of a less amicable nature soon took place between Mr. G. and one of those indignant antagonists, who had been roused to reply to the passages in which the historian attempts to account for the progress of Christianity without the intervention of any other than human aid.

‘ EDWARD GIBBON, ESQ. to the REV. DR. CHELSUM.

‘ Sir,

*Bentinck-street, Feb. 20th, 1778.*

‘ The officious readiness of offering any printed criticism to the notice of a stranger, who is himself the object of it, must be received either as a compliment or an insult. When Dr. Watson, the Divinity Professor of Cambridge, was so obliging as to send me his candid and ingenious apology, I thought it incumbent on me to acknowledge his politeness, and, with suitable expressions of regard, to solicit the pleasure of his acquaintance. A different mode of controversy calls for a different behaviour; and I should deem myself wanting in a just sense of my own honour, if I did not immediately return into the hands of Mr. Batt your most extraordinary present of a book, of which almost every page is stained with the epithets, I shall take leave to say the undeserved epithets, of *ungenerous, unmanly, indecent, illiberal, partial*, and in which your adversary is repeatedly charged with being *deficient in common candour; with studiously concealing the truth, violating the faith of history, &c.* This consideration will not however prevent me from procuring a copy of your Remarks, with the intention of correcting any involuntary mistakes, (and I cannot be  
conscious



conscious of any other,) which in so large a subject your industry, or that of your colleagues, may very possibly have observed. But I must not suffer myself to be diverted from the prosecution of an important work, by the invidious task of controversy and re-  
 crimination. Whatever faults in your performance I might fairly impute to want of attention, or excess of zeal, be assured, Sir, that they shall sleep in peace; and you may safely inform your readers, that Suidas was a heathen four centuries after the heathenism of the Greeks had ceased to exist in the world.

‘ I am, Sir, Your obedient humble Servant, E. GIBBON.’

‘ The REV. DR. CHELSUM to EDWARD GIBBON, ESQ.

‘ Sir, Oxford, March 6th, 1778.

‘ Permit me to assure you, with the utmost sincerity, that no insult, such as, I collect from your letter, you attribute to me, was ever intended by me.

‘ I had reason to think, from several circumstances, that my not having sent my Remarks to you in their first form, had been considered by you as a want of attention, and I was very ready to pay what others gave me reason to expect would be received as a mark of civility. I do not mean here to refer to Mr. Batt.

‘ My determination was the result of a deference to the opinions of others; and it arose in no degree from an “*officious readiness*,” to which you attribute it. I may be accused of an error in judgment, but I cannot justly be accused of any greater offence.

‘ Concerned as I am at my mistake, I am most of all concerned that so esteemed a friend as Mr. Batt should have been employed in a very unpleasant mediation between us.

‘ As it is the sole object of this letter to give you every possible assurance of my having intended a compliment in what has unfortunately been received as an insult, I should have concluded here, but that I am anxious to do myself the justice of pointing out to you, that you have unwarily imputed to me one expression (as I apprehend) wholly without foundation.

‘ On the most diligent recollection I cannot remember that I have any where said (and I am sure I never intended to say) that you have “*studiously*” concealed the truth.’

‘ I am, Sir, Your obedient humble Servant, J. CHELSUM.’

It was fashionable with the courtly part of the clergy to say that they had not read the offensive parts, and the admirers of sincerity must be not a little mortified on being obliged to class Dr. Robertson (M. R. vol. xx. p. 442.) in this inglorious assemblage. “Had I been aware,” says Gibbon with all imaginable composure, (Memoirs, p. 153.) “of the *attachment of the majority of my readers to Christianity*, I would have softened the obnoxious chapters.” He made, however, no replies except to Mr. Davies of Oxford, who attacked his sincerity. His rejoinder to that gentleman was printed with the first part of his *Miscellaneous Works*, and was much praised for its erudition but blamed for its diffuseness.

In

In 1776, after having published his book, Gibbon made an excursion to Paris. He was wonderfully caressed by the literati there, yet found means to consult at considerable leisure the *Bibliothèque du Roi*, and that of the Abbey of St. Germain. He had now become fully aware of the value of time, and was less eager in making new acquaintances: — “the society of men of letters,” he says, “I neither courted nor declined.” Two years nearly elapsed between the appearance of his first volume and his beginning to prepare the second for the press. This long interval was passed partly in parliamentary attendance, Mr. G. having become a member of the House of Commons, and partly in researches connected with his history. He was the writer of the “*Mémoire Justificatif*” circulated by our ministry in 1778, in answer to the manifesto issued by the court of France on taking part in the American war; and he speaks with no little self-complacency on this diplomatic performance, which was evidently too long and diffuse for an official document. He was afterwards made a commissioner of the Board of Trade, a place affording a clear annual salary of 750*l.*, which appointment he owed chiefly to the friendship of Lord Loughborough, and which he enjoyed about three years. Burke ridiculed the perpetual vacation of this Board, and the Opposition blamed Mr. G. for taking the place, but he says expressly in his *Memoirs* that he “never was connected with the Opposition.” He was not, however, though it was currently reported, the writer of a pamphlet in 1779, intitled “*The History of Opposition*,” that production having proceeded from the pen of Macpherson.

On resuming, in 1778, the task of historical composition, Mr. G. found it much easier than at the outset; he wrote more in the course of the day; and, which was equally important, he did not cancel so much. On publishing the second and third volumes, also, he excited less disapprobation, his comments on religious subjects being more guarded, and protestant clergymen being less alive to the characters and controversies of the fourth and fifth centuries. He was attacked, however, by Archdeacon Travis in a vehement style; and Porson's famous answer was considered by Gibbon as the most acute and accurate piece of criticism since the days of Bentley. A very general sentiment prevailed with the public that these two volumes were inferior to the first; an impression ascribed in the outset by Mr. G. to the want of novelty, and to the circumstance that “an author who cannot ascend will always appear to sink:” but he confessed eventually that the second and third volumes are more prolix and less entertaining than the first. Meantime, his parliamentary career had experienced  
some

some interruption, it having been found necessary that he should not resume his seat at the general election of 1780. He was subsequently returned for Lymington, but Lord North's administration now drew to its close, and with it fell (in 1782) the appointments of the Board of Trade.

Gibbon, now unemployed in a public capacity, and arrived at a pausing point in the composition of his history, passed some time in the enjoyment of literary relaxation, and returned to the perusal of Homer, Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, and the tragic poets. Yet "in the luxury of freedom he began to wish for the daily task, the active pursuit which gave a value to every book and an object to every inquiry." He determined, therefore, to recommence his historical engagement: but, feeling the inadequacy of his income to the support of the style of indulgence, or, as he called it, comfort, to which he had been accustomed, he made some attempts to be employed as secretary in the negotiation about to take place with France.

‘MR. GIBBON TO LORD THURLOW.

‘My Lord,

‘Without presuming to inquire into the state of public measures, which must be secret in order to be successful, I cannot but observe and congratulate, with the rest of my countrymen, the fair prospect of peace, or at least of negotiation, which seems to be opening upon us.

‘I find it generally understood that the principal conduct of this important event will be entrusted to a minister whose eminent abilities have been long tried and distinguished. But a scene of business so various and extensive must afford several collateral and subordinate lines of negotiation. If in any of these I should be thought qualified for public trust, I am ready to devote my time and my best industry to the service of my country, and shall think myself happy if I can discharge, in any degree, my debt of gratitude to his Majesty's government.

‘Your Lordship's experience of mankind has undoubtedly taught you to distrust and dislike ostentatious professions; yet I may affirm with the confidence of truth that if I consulted only my private interest and inclination, I should not be lightly tempted to interrupt the tranquillity and leisure, which I now enjoy, and in which I am never busy, and never idle.

‘The grateful recollection of your Lordship's indulgence on a former occasion has strongly solicited me to make this offer of my services. I should deem it no vulgar honour if they could ever deserve the approbation of a wise and intrepid statesman, who, in a divided country, has commanded the esteem and applause of the most hostile parties.

‘I am, with great respect, my Lord, &c.

‘E. GIBBON.’

‘The Lord Chancellor.’

‘LORD

‘ LORD THURLOW to MR. GIBBON.

‘ Dear Sir,

‘ I shall certainly avail myself of your permission, not to tender your services to the Minister, but, whenever an occasion sufficiently considerable shall offer, to suggest a name which possesses so many titles to the public confidence. And in that strange and distant scene (of foreign politics) it is almost the only suggestion I can make with perfect confidence.

‘ I have the honour to be, &c.

‘ THURLOW.’

He now resumed his history in earnest, and worked at it with so much vigour as to make a very considerable progress with the fourth volume in the course of twelve months. His doubtful prospect with regard to a place under government made him think seriously of living at Lausanne; where an annual income of 600*l.* would procure for him the same degree of comfort which double the amount would command in our expensive metropolis. Some of his friends, particularly Lord Sheffield, urged him to abandon the idea, in the hope of Lord North being enabled on returning to office to give him a permanent place as a commissioner of customs or excise: but he was by this time cured of sanguine expectations; and he felt that such an appointment, if obtained, would cause a very serious inroad on his hours. In addressing, therefore, his cordial friend Lord Loughborough, he seems rather to have intimated a determination to go abroad than to have asked an opinion of his chance in the event of remaining in England. We extract his Lordship's answer:

‘ LORD LOUGHBOROUGH to EDWARD GIBBON, Esq.

‘ My dear Sir,

*Bedford-square, Sept. 11th, 1783.*

‘ This is not literally but not far from it, the first time since I have attempted to write; when you did me the favour to call, I was less able to speak. —

‘ Your letter was a real addition to my complaints at the time I received it, and I cannot yet bring myself to look at it with a healthy eye. Many selfish considerations mingle themselves with my judgment upon it, and, no doubt, bias my opinion: I extremely regret the loss of your society, which in a more settled state than the late times have afforded, I hoped to have enjoyed more frequently. I am confident that not only Lord North, but some other friends of yours, who, if any thing is permanent, would have found their consequence increase, never would have lost sight of your object. Absence delays and slackens the most active pursuits of one's friends, and though some of us will miss you too often to forget, we shall want to conjure you back again to remind others.

‘ I shall

‘ I shall beg the favour of Lord Sheffield to do nothing about your seat without apprizing me. My state of health drives me as fast as I can to Buxton, and the moment I feel myself re-established, a thousand cares will bring me back to London. I do not propose to be gone above a month, and I trust you will not have taken your departure before the 10th of next month, when I hope to see you.

‘ I ever am, my dear Sir,

‘ Yours most sincerely,

‘ LOUGHBOROUGH.’

Mr. G. had paved the way for going abroad by corresponding with the friend of his youth, Deyverdun; and the letters that passed on this occasion, which were published in the first part of the *Miscellaneous Works*, (p. 570. *et seqq.*) deserve the attention of all who, under the present circumstances of renewed tranquillity, speculate on the plan of living on the Continent. Deyverdun apprises his friend that in Switzerland, as in France, a person is perfectly at liberty to chuse his own mode of life; going into society or withdrawing from it, in exact accordance with the circumstances of the individual. On the part of Gibbon, the chief difficulty was the conveyance of his library, and a doubt of obtaining access to the public collections of Geneva, Berne, and Basil. He felt little reluctance in exchanging the political and literary society of London for the unlettered cheerfulness of Lausanne: conversation was with him rather an amusement than a school; and, as far as vivacity and candour went, he had reason to be confident that he should not be disappointed in his new associates, particularly the females: who in that region, and in France, have not only more pleasing manners but more taste and knowlege than the other sex. The distance from England seemed at first formidable: but, in two journies subsequently made by Mr. G. (in 1787 and 1793) it proved that, ill fitted as he was for undergoing bodily fatigue, he arrived in London before he thought it was possible that he could have travelled six hundred miles.

Having settled himself at Lausanne in a commodious house beautifully situated, and occupied by him jointly with Deyverdun, he arranged his time on the plan of rising early, breakfasting alone, receiving no morning visits, dining at two o'clock, and giving the evening to conversation or cards. In this manner he lived very happily, and experienced no inconvenience, except from the place being too much frequented by strangers in consequence of the attractions of its beautiful neighbourhood, the vicinity of the Alps, and the medical reputation of Tissot: a number of English being in the

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habit of spending their winters at Nice and their summers in the Pays de Vaud. In this situation, Mr. G. proceeded to prepare for the press the last three volumes of his work. Dr. Robertson had already expressed himself in sanguine terms on the magnitude and interest of the subject. "You have," he says, "three or four events as great, splendid, and singular as the heart of a historian could wish to delineate: the cotemporary writers will give you the necessary facts; to adorn them as elegant writers, or to account for them as philosophers, never entered into their heads."

The historian had now to relate the incursions of the various tribes of barbarians, who shook and eventually overturned the Roman empire. Having carefully considered the manner of disposing of his materials, he determined "to group his picture by nations;" the seeming neglect of chronological order being compensated by the superior interest and perspicuity: but it is to be regretted that he did not adopt a hint of Lord Hardwicke, and give a map of the native seats and progressive advance of the northern hordes.—He now proceeded in his labour without the interruptions attendant on a residence in a great city, and was enabled to complete his engagement in the course of three years. Living, at the time, so much in French society, he suspects that there may be a mixture of French idioms in the last volumes; and the concluding part was written, perhaps, too hastily, in order to meet the urgency of the bookseller. On finishing the MS. he went to London in August 1787, and passed the winter in correcting the proof-sheets, which were struck off with extraordinary rapidity, to avoid losing the publishing season: yet the printing of the whole lasted seven months; an interval in which Mr. G. found time to make the necessary references to various authorities in London which he had not had an opportunity of consulting on the Continent. The impression consisted of three thousand copies; an extent to which the bookseller ventured in the hope, which was fortunately realized, that the possessors of the former volumes would complete their sets. This was independent of the sale on the Continent, which was, in a great measure, monopolized by a cheap edition printed at Basil. Mr. G. complained greatly of the inferiority of the French translation of his book, and regretted the deficiency of critical journals in that language; a blank which still continues, the public on the French side of the Channel having scarcely any other medium of judging of new books than by a short notice in a news-paper.

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The completion of this great work produced several complimentary addresses from his friends; and, among others, from Dr. Robertson, who observed: "I know of no example of such a vast body of valuable and elegant information being communicated to the world by any individual. Since your career, I can pretend no longer to be the most industrious historian of the age. Your style appears to me improved — by habit you now write with greater ease. I am sorry we do not agree on the effects of the Crusades, a point which I considered with great care."

Mr. Gibbon's work being one of the most comprehensive in the range of historical labours, it may not be uninteresting to calculate the length of time which it required. He appears to have been occupied with it, more or less, during twenty years, beginning at the age of thirty. He had previously laid in a considerable stock of reading, productive not only of general knowledge, but of such as was applicable to the specific object of his history: he had travelled over Italy; and he had, by repeated perusals, become familiar with the Latin classics. Many deductions, however, must be made from the apparent period of twenty years: — he had his father's affairs to settle; he attended during eight sessions in parliament; and he gave to mixed society that portion of time which can scarcely be saved by a man in public life residing in a metropolis. We may add that, even when out of London, whether at Lausanne or in the country in England, his labour was not resumed after the hour of dinner; though, in order to keep up to his engagement with the bookseller, he wrote in one year (1786) during the evenings; "an industry which he never practised before, and to which he hoped never to be again reduced." We shall, therefore, not be far from the truth in computing that the time bestowed on his history was equal to half the apparent period; and that he might have accomplished his task in ten years of steady, uninterrupted application. He has been greatly praised for the extent of his research; a point in which, if the truth must be spoken, it is not difficult to rival his two historical contemporaries. In analyzing, however, the nature of Mr. Gibbon's research, we shall find it rather careful than extensive. The want of printing during the ages described by him, and the loss of many of the manuscript-vouchers, necessarily prevented the existence of that enormous quantity of materials which, in the case of recent history, is so alarming to the candidate for fame. He had, therefore, less occasion to dissect a mass, than to make a careful appropriation of the stock of documents before him, — a stock which, after every deduction, we allow to have

been extensive, — and to have prosecuted a labour which he is admitted to have performed with an uncommon degree of attention and accuracy.

Our readers cannot fail to have remarked the successive fluctuations of Mr. Gibbon in an attempt to fix on a subject of historical composition. We have noticed his undertaking and relinquishing a life of Sir Walter Raleigh, and a history of Switzerland: but we might have swelled the list by a number of additions, such as a projected narrative of the government of the House of Medicis at Florence: the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy; the life of our Henry V.; and even the wars of our Barons against John and Henry III. We advert to this subject in order that young candidates for literary reputation may have, amid their doubts and difficulties, the satisfaction of knowing that their embarrassment is not peculiar, and that our most successful writers have experienced disappointment in their earlier undertakings. The case of Hume was still less encouraging, for he had not only his changes but his reiterated failures. Our practical conclusion should be that, whatever may be for a time the difficulties of a man of talents and industry, these qualities will at last make an appropriate selection, and raise their possessor to merited reputation. Those who are distrustful of the comfort of a literary life, and enamoured of pursuits which bring them into contact with public characters, will do well to cast their eye over a paragraph in Mr. G.'s letter to Lord Sheffield, of the 14th November 1783, (*Memoirs*, vol. i.) in which he draws a contrast between his own situation at Lausanne and that of his noble friend in parliament, and concludes by asking significantly "who has the better bargain?"

Mr. Gibbon passed the time of his stay in England partly in London and partly at Lord Sheffield's seat. He had now the satisfaction of seeing his country in the enjoyment of peace and commercial prosperity; and he was gratified at a visible abatement of the party-spirit that had raged so vehemently during the American contest. He paid, when his leisure permitted, an occasional visit to Westminster-hall, and was much delighted with the first display of Mr. Sheridan's eloquence at Mr. Hastings's trial. On another occasion, he stole an interval to visit Lord North in the country, and found him a happy man, notwithstanding the loss of power and of eyesight. The preface to the last three volumes of the "*Decline and Fall*" had contained the following passage:

"Were I ambitious of any other patron than the public, I would inscribe this work to a Statesman, who, in a long, a stormy, and at length an unfortunate administration, had many political  
opponents,



opponents, almost without a personal enemy; who has retained in his fall from power many faithful and disinterested friends, and who, under the pressure of severe infirmity, enjoys the lively vigour of his mind, and the felicity of his incomparable temper. Lord North will permit me to express the feelings of friendship in the language of truth, but even truth and friendship should be silent if he still dispensed the favours of the Crown."

This flattering notice was not expected by the retired minister, and produced a warm expression of gratitude:

' LORD NORTH TO EDWARD GIBBON, ESQ.

' Dear Sir,

*Grosvenor-street, May 1st, 1788.*

' Upon the receipt of your books, and the perusal of your preface, my heart was too full to give you an immediate answer: so kind and honourable a testimony of your friendship and esteem would have afforded me the greatest pleasure in the moment of my highest health and political prosperity; judge then what I must feel upon receiving it in my retirement, while labouring under a calamity which would be severe, were it not for the goodness of my friends. I have it, thank God, in my power to return your kindness in the manner which will be most agreeable to you, by assuring you sincerely that nothing could have given me more real comfort and satisfaction than the notice that you have taken of me.

' I am, Dear Sir, most faithfully yours,

' NORTH.'

As Mr. Gibbon felt no disposition to take up his residence in England, he made arrangements for returning to Lausanne when he had finished the publication of his work, and completed some fresh purchases of books. These additions carried the amount of his library to six or seven thousand volumes; and, as he was now disengaged from the task of composition, he indulged largely on returning to Lausanne in the luxury of miscellaneous reading, took a full repast on Homer, Aristophanes, and Plato, and continued to devote the latter part of the day to society. On surveying the circumstances of his situation, (*Memoirs*, p. 182.) he was disposed to consider himself as very happy, and to look forwards with pleasant expectation to that old age which Fontenelle declared to be the most agreeable part of life. As to money, he had become affluent by succeeding (in 1791) to the property of an aunt; and, though he was subject to attacks of gout, yet, when indisposed, he was visited by a number of friends of both sexes, "who entered with a smile and vanished at a nod." Various events, however, occurred unexpectedly to mar his prospect of comfort: he had the misfortune to lose his friend Deyverdun; he found the tranquillity of his residence interrupted by the storm of the French Revolution;

he was now painfully reminded of the danger of scoffing at religion; and he looked back with sorrow and regret on the imprudence of his former publications. "I have repeatedly thought," he says, "of writing a dialogue in which Lucian, Erasmus, and Voltaire, should be the speakers, and should mutually acknowledge the danger of exposing an established system of belief to the doubts of the multitude."

Madame Necker lived at this time in his neighbourhood, and was deservedly reckoned among his most agreeable friends: indeed, this amiable lady (the mother of Madame de Stael) had been known to him from his youth. We have already extracted (M.R. vol. xx. p. 83.) the passage in his *Memoirs* which contained an account of the impression made on his heart by Mademoiselle Curchod, the daughter of a Protestant clergyman, who lived in a village in the mountains which separate the Pays de Vaud from the province of Burgundy, and had leisure which enabled him to give a liberal and even a learned education to his daughter, whose beauty was likewise the object of admiration. Her parents were disposed to encourage the offers of Mr. Gibbon, who was then very young: but, on his return to England, his father would not hear of an alliance so disproportioned in point of property. "I sighed," says Mr. G., "as a lover; I obeyed as a son; my love subsided into friendship and esteem." Rousseau, being acquainted with the family of the young lady, lost all patience on hearing that Gibbon could reason so coolly on a question of the heart, and exclaimed; "He that does not know her value is unworthy of her; he who knows it and can relinquish her is a man to be despised." The lady, however, viewed Mr. G.'s conduct through a different medium, and continued to behave to him as an affectionate sister after her marriage with M. Necker had made a surprising alteration in her circumstances. The volume now published contains several interesting letters from her, beginning at the time of her husband's first resignation of office, and continued till 1791, 1792, and 1793, by which time he had finally retired. We shall translate some extracts from them, which will shew our timid bachelors that they need not be in terror of a learned wife, or dread that her affection will be impaired by the consciousness of a few foibles on the part of her "lord."

"Paris, 29th July.

"I have unfortunately too good an excuse for my deficient punctuality in writing. M. Necker has been long indisposed, in consequence not of his resignation, but of the circumstances which obliged him to take that step. The disquietude which I have experienced on account of his health has taught me to appreciate

preciate the effect of distress on the mind, and to estimate lightly in comparison the sufferings of a different nature. The public appear to regret his retirement, and he has received thanks and blessings from all quarters. You write to me in a complimentary style respecting the document published by him under the title of "*Compte Rendu*." I am glad you are pleased with it, but I was not instrumental in its publication; on the contrary, it appeared against my wish. I had long enjoyed, in silence, the pleasure of making my husband happy; and that feeling could receive no increase from the diffusion of his reputation as a minister. Perhaps, then, the publication in question proceeded from a weakness on his side. But weaknesses, in the mind of a superior man, may be regarded in the light of a kindness on the part of nature to his wife and his friends. A perfect being would have no wants; and we must have both faults and weaknesses in order to become sensible of the consolations and the enjoyment afforded by the affection of others.

"You cannot doubt that the success of your history afforded me great delight; I will not presume to give you advice; I could allude only to your opinions, and these are not to be changed by the effusions of a friend."

"Paris, 30th Sept. 1776.

"You have a just claim to all the fame that your work is about to procure for you: but I must still refuse to your chapters on religion the enthusiastic approbation that I give to the rest of your book. How is it possible that a man of talents, alive to all the charms of hope, should allow himself to be instrumental in endeavouring to undermine the comfort of those who place their happiness in the hopes inspired by religion?"

"I have invited Lord and Lady Lucan oftener than Mrs. Montague, both because they are your friends, and because I give a preference to unassuming people. Not but that we are all ready to bear testimony to the politeness and to the talents of Mrs. Montague. It is curious to observe her wonderful efforts to express herself in French; and her conversation brings to my recollection the torture which I underwent in London, where I could neither understand others nor make myself understood."

"Copet, near Geneva, March, 1792.

"Your works have afforded me a most agreeable occupation. I have never told you the comfort which I have received from their perusal; for, during the two years of the troubled administration of M. Necker, I had not an hour of composure or of liberty.

"I was looking forwards with much pleasure to the time of our visit to you, and it is with great regret that I am obliged to postpone it. You were always dear to me: but your late attention to M. Necker has created for you a double place in my heart. Yet I am angry with my husband for my present disappointment; he has given way to some reasons which he will himself explain to you: but I cannot help remarking that it does not fall to the lot of many to possess, like you, the advantages of  
genius

genius without its drawbacks. M. Necker's projects are sometimes surrounded by a troop of light horse, who skirmish all along his route so that one can never foresee the result of the conflict. He is distressed at the postponement of our visit: but, in his letter to you, he has not, in my opinion, told you enough of our gratitude, nor of the consoling effect produced on us by your unexampled kindness at this dreadful period of our career."

" *Copet, 15th June, 1792.*

" " We often reflect with pleasure on the delightful days passed with you at Geneva. I there enjoyed a revival of the pure affection of my youth, in conjunction with that which arises from my settled lot, and makes me so truly an object of envy. This coincidence, together with the charms of your unrivalled conversation, formed an enchanted scene to me. Why will you not come here and renew it? Copet is in all its beauty: but I must confess that you would find us very solitary, the state of public affairs preventing our Genevese neighbours from leaving home. One of them, M. de Germani, has chosen to marry a second time. Beware, I entreat you, of forming one of these late connections; the marriage that confers happiness in advanced years is that which is contracted in youth; then only can the union be complete, the feelings freely communicated, or the intellectual faculties mutually improved. In such a case, life becomes, in a manner, doubled, and may be called a prolongation of youth; the impressions on the mind create an illusion to the eye, and beauty preserves its influence after it has ceased to exist. You, arrived as you are at the fullness of reputation and knowledge, could not, without a miracle, find a suitable companion; consider yourself, then, as linked in the conjugal tie with fame; your friends will not be jealous of such a bond; for they will feel that its lustre is reflected on themselves."

" *Rolle, 2d Jan. 1793.*

" " I beg you to write a line to say how you are. I am very uneasy about you, under the apprehension that you are either indisposed or plunged in grief at the distressing scenes now passing in Paris. The King's trial keeps us in a state of cruel suspense. M. Necker dares not indulge a hope. Louis XVI. is not to him what he is to the rest of the world; all the labours of my husband, for twenty years back, point to that unfortunate monarch as to a centre."

" *Copet, 12th July, 1793.*

" " M. Necker endeavours to seek relief in agricultural pursuits. We try to amuse him, at one time as a child, at another as a superior being, since in truth he partakes of the qualities of both; but nothing can afford him effectual relief under the distressing impressions perpetually renewed in his susceptible heart. We must have ourselves felt affection to conceive anguish caused by ingratitude. He was too mild to be acceptable to Frenchmen of the present day; they have driven out the dove and let in the vulture.

" " I hope

“I hope you found Lord Sheffield in a state of composure, and that your kindness will perfect the work of his own reflection. How often have M. Necker and I felt the soothing effects of your friendship; and how delightful is it for me to redouble my attachment to you by that with which you have inspired my husband!”

The clouds on the political horizon, and the apprehension of a visit from French troops, had made Mr. Gibbon begin to question the expediency of remaining at Lausanne, when the occurrence of a severe calamity to his most intimate friend (to which Madame Necker alludes in the preceding letter) determined him to set out, as soon as possible, for London. This was the death of Lady Sheffield, which took place in April 1793, and affected Mr. G. so much that, immediately on hearing of it, he began with a promptitude by no means natural to him to make arrangements for an immediate visit to the distressed widower. He departed in May; and, though by this time his inactivity had begun to approach to infirmity, he found the journey by no means difficult or fatiguing. When arrived in England, he lived chiefly with Lord S., and became, by his captivating conversation, the charm of the circles of Sheffield-place. ‘No man,’ says his Lordship, ‘ever divided time more fairly between labour and social enjoyment.’ His great misfortune was an aversion to exercise, and a reluctance to acknowledge the impaired state of his constitution: but unfortunately in November 1793 his complaints began to wear a serious aspect. The particulars are explained in the supplement to his *Memoirs*, vol. i. pp. 292, 293, 294; and we shall here merely remark that they took their rise not in late hours, and still less in any trespass of intemperance, but in a relaxation of that vigilance and activity which alone can carry a frame, originally delicate, to an advanced period of life. The following letter from Madame Necker shews the sensation caused among his friends at Lausanne by the news of his dangerous state.

“*Lausanne, 9th Dec. 1793.*

“I cannot describe to you our distress at the unexpected intelligence received of you. It was in vain for your friend to present alleviating considerations, to dwell on your courage, your cheerfulness, and your composure; these qualities only tend to aggravate the pressure on my heart. Truly may I say that the twilight of our life is beset with clouds, since even that friendship, under which my husband and I took refuge, is now the cause of a sorrow which I feel pervading my whole frame. I will not enlarge on this subject; my weakness would ill accord with your heroism. We have taken up our residence at Lausanne, where we regret your absence every hour of the day: but we have the consolation of being

being on the spot on which we can receive the latest intelligence from you."

This letter reached Mr. Gibbon at a time when the performance of a surgical operation seemed to remove the more immediate cause of his debility: but the appearances were deceitful; he soon relapsed; and on the 16th of January 1794 he expired, in his 57th year. He was interred in Lord Sheffield's family burial-place at Fletching in Sussex, and on his tomb is inscribed the following epitaph from the pen of Dr. Parr.

' *Edvardus Gibbon*  
*Criticus acri ingenio et multiplici doctrina ornatus*  
*Idemque historicorum qui fortunam*  
*Imperii Romani*  
*Vel labentis et inclinati vel eversi et funditus deleti*  
*Litteris mandaverint*  
*Omnium facile princeps*  
*Cujus in moribus erat moderatio animi*  
*Cum liberali quadam specie conjuncta*  
*In sermone*  
*Multa gravitati comitas suaviter adspersa*  
*In scriptis*  
*Copiosum splendidum*  
*Concinnum orbe verborum*  
*Et summo artificio distinctum*  
*Orationis genus*  
*Reconditæ exquisitæque sententiæ*  
*Et in monumentis rerum politicarum observandis*  
*Acuta et perspicax prudentia*  
*Vixit annos lvi mens. vii dies xxviii.'*

In our next Number, we shall conclude this article, according to the proposed plan.

[To be continued.]

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ART. II. *The Tragedies of Vittorio Alfieri.* Translated from the Italian, by Charles Lloyd. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ALFIERI has excited some attention in this country. His poetic reputation was not unknown when his extraordinary memoirs gratified curiosity respecting his life, and increased the interest which his theatrical productions had awakened. We spoke of the Italian edition of his Tragedies in the xxivth vol. of our New Series, p. 527.; and we gave an analysis of his self-biography in our lxiid vol. p. 397. On this latter occasion, one of those lapses of memory occurred, with which we believe we are not often chargeable, and we did not recollect our preceding account of his works. Referring now, however, to that article, we have on the present occasion

casion the less to say concerning the character and dramatic value of these pieces. They have the faults necessarily inherent in plays that are formed on the French plan. For the sake of observing the unity of *time*, only the catastrophe of the action is in fact dramatized; and its preparation and progress are reduced to narratives, to which persons always listen whose ignorance is improbable. For the sake of observing also the unity of *place*, friends and foes, lovers and demagogues, give a rendezvous in the same apartment; and the spectator is fatigued with the dull sameness of a never-shifting scene. Lastly, for the sake of observing the unity of *action*, the plot has a simplicity often bordering on flatness; the interest is not merely single but solitary; and that quantity of sentiment, emotion, and attraction is dilated into a play, which a German poet would comprize in a monodrama.

Traits of character, however, we here find, though few of manners. These are mostly rendered visible on the first introduction of the personages, and are sometimes rather asserted than implied. General, not individual, nature is depicted. The ethic painting of the *northern* poets abounds with traits of manners: the spectator is every moment reminded by some historical allusion, of the place and period of the action; and even the insignificant characters have nationality and peculiarity about them:—but the *southern* poets as affectedly omit in their dramas every thing accidental and personal, and rather dwell on the features that are common to every country and age. This practice enfeebles both the interest and the instruction of the stage. To bring before the eye and the ear all that is appropriate to a given nation in dress or music, in gesture or idea, in figure or prejudice, in architecture or superstition, and thus to make the play-house a lecture-room of archæology, is one of the best destinations and purposes of theatric art.

Count Alfieri has much varied the locality of his tragedies. In his *Saul*, the scene lies in Palestine. In *Polinices*, *Antigone*, *Agamemnon*, *Orestes*, *Merope*, *Agis*, and *Myrrha*, in Greece. Roman incidents are treated in *Virginia*, *Octavia*, *Brutus the First*, and *Brutus the Second*. Sicily and Africa furnish the scenery of *Timoleon* and *Sophonisba*. *Philip* is the only Spanish, and *Mary Stuart* the only English subject. The remaining pieces are Italian, and are severally intitled *Rosmunda of Pavia*, *the Conspiracy of the Pazzi*, and *Don Garcia*. These last three plays form the most interesting and national part of the whole collection. Other nations have treated Greek and Roman subjects with rival or superior pathos, and with a more industrious regard to the extant mass of precedent which is preserved with the remains of classical literature:

but

but the incidents of Italian history have seldom attracted the notice of dramatists so well calculated to bestow the appropriate colouring. To the three Italian tragedies, therefore, as forming the beauties of Alfieri, we shall now confine our attention.

*Rosmunda of Pavia* has usurped the sovereignty of Lombardy, by murdering her first husband, and placing in his bed and throne her cicisbeo the General Almachilde. This domination was patiently borne by the people during the minority of Romilda, the only daughter of the late king Alboino: but, now that she is of age, a disposition to vindictive insurrection is arising, tending to confer the throne on her and on the husband of her choice. Rosmunda, alarmed at her daughter's influence, is preparing to marry her, at a distance, to Alaric: but Romilda has secretly decided to prefer the native General Ildovaldo. It happens that the adulterer Almachilde also falls in love with Romilda, and is disposed to separate from the mother and to divide the empire with Romilda. The situations now become intricate, trying, and versatile. Rosmunda, to protect herself against the desertion of Almachilde, is obliged to favour the pretensions of Ildovaldo, and to become the instrument apparently of her own deposition and punishment: but her ambition, steadily unfeeling, at length excites her to poignard her own daughter, and she thus quells the insurrection and remains queen. All the personages, who are only four, express themselves with an improbable sincerity; and nefarious intentions are proclaimed with as much openness, as if guilt never found its account in hypocrisy. A grandeur, however, is thus imparted to the character of Rosmunda; who seems born to command the relatively feeble beings by whom she is surrounded. The tragedy has great moments, and little likelihood. — The translator calls the river near to Pavia by its antient name Ticinus: in which case the city also should have been called Ticinum: but the modern name Tesino ought to have been preferred, because it was already in use by the inhabitants of the kingdom of Lombardy, at the date of the supposed event.

*The Conspiracy of the Pazzi* has less of invention and fancy, but more of truth and nature, in the structure of the fable; indeed, it adheres to the historical fact with as much closeness as can easily consist with the forms of dramatic representation. This tragedy is decidedly the master-piece of Alfieri, and perhaps of the Italian theatre: at least we prefer it to the *Torrismond* of Tasso, and to the *Merope* of Maffei. The personages are six in number: Lorenzo dei Medici, his brother Julian, and their sister Bianca; Guglielmo, a discontented citizen; his son Raymond, the husband of Bianca; and



Salviati, another conspirator. The first act is chiefly an exposition; Guglielmo and his son talk over the grievances of Florence; the spectator is prepared to consider the Medici as usurpers, who are extinguishing the liberty of the commonwealth; and Bianca's intimate relation with both parties announces a harassing solicitude.—The second act finely contrasts the characters of Lorenzo and Julian, and is pregnant with profound political reflections. We quote the first and second scene, which explain the specific provocation that detaches from the Medici a family allied to them by marriage:

‘ *Julian, Lorenzo.*

‘ *Lo.* Brother, what boots it? Thou hast hitherto  
Trusted to me: does it now seem to thee  
That, by my means, our influence is diminish'd?  
Thou talkest of restraining men? are these  
Restrained? If such had met with tolerance,  
Say, had we risen to our present greatness?

‘ *Ju.* 'Tis true, Lorenzo, a benignant star  
Shines on us hitherto. We owe in part  
To fortune our advancement; but still more  
To our forefather's lofty counsels owe it.  
Cosmo possess'd the state, but he possess'd it  
Under the semblance of a private man.  
Nor are the fetters yet so rivetted,  
That with the exterior of royalty  
We may securely grasp them. Let us leave  
To fools, who form the multitude, the vain  
Appearances of their lost liberty.  
In its commencement, arbitrary power,  
The less it is display'd, is more confirm'd.

‘ *Lo.* We have not yet obtain'd the height of greatness:  
We are summon'd by the present times, oh Julian,  
Rather to greatly dare, than nicely weigh.  
Cosmo already centred in himself  
His universal country; and by all,  
As with one voice, was welcom'd as a father.  
Little or nothing to the complex scheme  
Pier our father added: adverse fate  
Quickly cut short the few and feeble days  
That he survived his sire: he added little;  
But meanwhile he to Cosmo next succeeding,  
And we to Pier, something is obtain'd.  
In thus accustoming the citizens  
To hereditary right. Our foes thenceforward  
Have been each day dispersed, enfeebled, slain;  
Our friends accustomed or constrained to obey;  
Now that all things invite us to complete  
Cosmo's magnanimous enterprize, shall we  
Be self-defeated by our cowardice?

‘ *Ju.* Wisely

' *Ju.* Wisely we ought to bring it to an end ;  
 But in a manner moderate and humane.  
 Where gentle measures may affect our ends  
 With cautious speed, inflexible, yet mild ;  
 And, when 'tis needful, sparingly severe.  
 Brother, believe me, to eradicate  
 Those seeds of liberty, by nature placed  
 In every human breast, no little art,  
 And management, besides a length of time,  
 Are requisite : these seeds may be suppress'd  
 By spilling human blood, but not extinguish'd.  
 And oftentimes from blood they shoot again  
 With fresh luxuriance . . .

' *Lo.* And do I wish  
 To shed the blood of these ? The axe in Rome  
 Was Scylla's instrument ; but e'en the rod  
 Is too imposing here : my words alone  
 Suffice to make them tremble.

' *Ju.* Blind reliance !  
 Knowest thou not that none are to be fear'd  
 Like men enslaved ? Scylla dismiss'd his guards,  
 Yet hence was he not slain ; but girt with arms,  
 With satellites, and mercenary spies,  
 Nero, Domitian, and Caligula,  
 And thousand others that have ruled o'er slaves,  
 By their own minions butcher'd, fell ignobly.  
 Why irritate those who obey already ?  
 Obtain thy end by other means. 'Tis true,  
 The people here were never wholly free ;  
 But notwithstanding never slaves to one. —  
 Thou should'st benumb their minds ; and utterly  
 Enervate their affections ; each high thought  
 Subtly eradicate ; abolish virtue,  
 Or wither it by making it a jest ;  
 Install among thy creatures the most pliant ;  
 Degrade, by honouring them, the falsely proud ;  
 Declaim in lofty and imposing tones  
 Of clemency, of country, glory, laws,  
 And citizens ; and more than aught besides  
 Affect equality with thy inferiors. —  
 Behold the mighty means, by which in each  
 Are changed by little and by little first  
 The feelings, then the customs, thence the laws ;  
 Then the deportment of the ruler ; last,  
 That which alone remains to change, his name.

' *Lo.* Our ancestors with happy auspices  
 Already have adopted all these measures :  
 The foolish quarrels of the citizens,  
 If now a link is wanting to the chain,  
 Should fabricate that link. One, only one,  
 Openly dares, in short, to brave our power ;  
 And ought he to be fear'd ?

' *Ju.* Fero-

‘ *Ju.* Ferocious son  
Of disaffected father, Raymond gives  
Just ground for apprehension . . .

‘ *Lo.* Both should be  
(And for this project I address myself,  
Blasted by scorn : e’en a revenge like that  
Would not be undelightful . . .

‘ *Ju.* ’Tis not safe.

‘ *Lo.* Great as the project is, my mind is fix’d.  
I from his rank will take that turbulent youth ;  
And suffer him to scatter at his will  
Seditious words in vain : thus all shall see  
How thoroughly I scorn his menaces.

‘ *Ju.* A foe offended, and not slain ? At this,  
What bosom, e’en though mail’d with triple steel,  
Would tremble not ? Should’st thou make him a foe  
Whom thou could’st extirpate ? Why thus give him,  
Thyself, incautiously, so many pretexts  
To agitate the state ? Why make him thus  
The head, and leader of the malcontents ?  
And they are numerous ; many, many more  
Than thou suspectest. Open force they have not ?  
I trust that it is so : but who will guard  
Our back from treason ? Will suspicion, say,  
Suffice for this ? It may suffice to spoil  
Our quiet, not to give security.

‘ *Lo.* Audacity will be our best defence :  
Audacity to the enterprizing breast,  
Which is both sword, and intellect, and shield.  
A silent invitation I will give  
To the rebellious and impetuous youth  
To new offences. Afterwards disgraced,  
But not destroy’d by him who might destroy him,  
He to the multitude whom now he heads  
Will thus become an object of derision.

‘ SCENE THE SECOND.

‘ *Lorenzo, Julian, Guglielmo, Raymond.*

‘ *Gu.* Follow my footsteps, son ; and I beseech thee  
Suffer me here to speak alone.—Oh you,  
(For yet I know not by what epithet  
I ought to accost you) in a suppliant posture  
Behold me here your once implacable,  
And bitterest enemy. Better I know,  
Better adapted to my age infirm,  
Were free expressions, and still freer deeds ;  
Nor with my nature, though I use them, do  
These servile ones accord. But I am not  
The only one remaining of my house ;  
Whence to your fortune, and to tyrannous  
And base necessity, I long have yielded.

Myself,

Myself, my life, my substance, and my honour,  
My children, all did I confide to you ;  
Nor was I more reluctant to obey

Than others were. Thence can I scarce believe  
That which is now reported, that ye mean  
With wrongs unmerited to injure Raymond,  
And me in him. But grant, if this be true,  
That I demand of you the cause for this.

' *Ju.* Why from thy son dost thou not first demand  
The cause of his deportment, and his language? . . .

' *Ray.* I refuse not to give account to him :  
Nor can I ever meet with those, to whom  
I would more freely, than to you, confess  
My purposes . . .

' *Lo.* Thy purposes I know. —  
But I would teach thee, that, if thou would'st cope  
With those in pow'r, there's need of enterprize  
Proportion'd to thy envy ; and not less  
Strength to that lofty enterprize proportion'd.  
Say ; fares it so with thee ?

' *Gu.* I hitherto  
Am chief of all our race ; nor is there one  
Who dares to move, if I precede him not.  
I speak of deeds. And what, do ye likewise  
Pretend to sit in judgment on secret thoughts ?  
Are ineffectual words high treason here ?  
Are we so far advanced ? — If ye pretend  
To exercise a right like this, I ask you,  
That men may learn more abjectly to fear,  
What are you ? Whence your charter to such power ?

' *Ray.* What are they ? Dost thou ask it ? Do not they  
Tremendously, though tacitly, express it  
In their imperious and cruel faces ? —  
Yes, they are all ; and nothing we.

' *Ju.* We are  
The fearless guardians of the sacred laws ;  
We are exterminating flames from heaven  
To culprits like thyself ; but to the good  
Heart-cheering benefactors.

' *Lo.* In one word,  
Such are we as to hold thee in contempt.  
Our will to thee assign'd the gonfalon,  
Another will of ours more just recalls it.  
With dignity unmerited by us  
Invested, didst thou ask on what pretence  
The gonfalon was yielded to thy hands ?

' *Ray.* Who knows it not ? Your terror gave it me ;  
Your terror takes it from me : to yourselves  
Terror is law supreme and deity.  
What attribute of king possess you not ?  
Already ye possess the public hate,

Their

Their cruel artifice, their frantic vices,  
 Their infamous contrivances. Ye tread  
 The generous path trod by your ancestors :  
 Proceed, oh valiant, in full sail proceed,  
 While prosperous gales befriend you. Not wealth only,  
 But life and honour ye will take away  
 From those who give you umbrage: the sublime,  
 And only right to your authority,  
 From waste of blood arises. Greatly dare :  
 And try to imitate the many tyrants  
 By whom oppress'd Italia has been scourged . . .

' *Gu.* My son, thou dost exceed all bounds. 'Tis true,  
 That it is lawful for each man to speak  
 His thoughts, while these have not thrown off the name  
 Of citizens : but we . . .

' *Lo.* Too late thou'rt cautious :  
 Thy time hast thou ill chosen to restrain him.  
 Fret not thyself ; his words are thy begetting.  
 Leave him to speak : on us depends to hear him.

' *Ju.* Audacious youth, minds ill-disposed already,  
 What boots it to exasperate ? 'Twould be  
 The best for thee spontaneously to quit  
 The gonfalon, which in contempt of us  
 Thou wouldest keep in vain ; thou seest it . . .

' *Ray.* Shall I thus make myself deserving insults ?  
 Hear me : these arts successfully perchance  
 May be adopted to ensure command,  
 But not to ensure obedience. If I yield,  
 I yield alone to force. Honour sometimes  
 Is by submission gain'd, if we indeed  
 Submit to nothing but to absolute,  
 And dire necessity.—It pleases me,  
 As I have told you mine, to have heard your thoughts.  
 Now new means to new violence I wait  
 To see, and be they what they may, I swear  
 That I will be of rising tyranny  
 The victim, yes, but not the instrument.'

Act iii. announces the arrival of Salviati with armed assistance from the Pope and from the King of Naples. This event necessitates immediate decision on the part of the discontented ; and they resolve to attempt the assassination of the Medici in the church. The scene, in which Raymond gains the consent of his father Guglielmo to connive at the conspiracy, is so finely written that we are tempted to transcribe it also, though it is rather too long :

' *Guglielmo, Salviati, Raymond.*

' *Gu.* Thou, Salviati, here ? I thought thou wert  
 Pursuing honours on the Tyber's banks.

' *Sal.* A mightier object to my natal soil  
 Restores me.

REV. MAY, 1816.

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' *Gu.* Luck-

' *Gu.* Lucklessly dost thou review  
 A soil which it were better to forget.  
 To us what foolish purpose guides thee safe,  
 Far from the tyrants didst thou dwell, and thou  
 Returnest to thy prison. To the man  
 Doom'd to behold his native land enslaved  
 By cruel and by arbitrary power,  
 What unfrequented and what distant spot  
 (However savage and inhospitable,)  
 Can be unwelcome? Let my son to thee  
 Be an example, if we ought to look  
 From these our Medicæan lords for aught  
 But outrages and scorn. In vain, in vain  
 Rome with the sacred ministry invests thee;  
 Their supreme will alone is here held sacred.

' *Ray.* Father, and know'st thou whether he comes here  
 Arm'd with endurance or a shield less vile?

' *Sal.* Of bitter and retributory wrath  
 I come the austere minister: I come  
 Of plenary, inflexible revenge,  
 Though late, the certain messenger. I hope  
 To arouse ye all from the vile lethargy  
 In which ye all lie buried, abject slaves,  
 Now that with me and with my rage I bring  
 The holy rage of Sixtus, sovereign pontiff.

' *Gu.* Arms wholly useless: rage we do not want;  
 We want support; endurance or support  
 Must be our choice or chance.

' *Sal.* Support we bring,  
 And more effectual than was ever proffer'd.  
 I bring not words alone. Hear; for to me,  
 In brief yet powerful language, it belongs  
 The business to divulge. There are, by whom  
 I am commission'd to recall to thee,  
 Provided thou canst yet remember them,  
 The ancient times, and thy original pride.  
 If not, the painful duty then is mine  
 The degradation of thyself and others  
 To bring before thine eyes. If in thy veins  
 There yet is blood left to revolt at this,  
 Assistance is not far from us. Already  
 The Roman banners in the Etrurian ports  
 Wave to the wind; and far more firm support  
 The standard of King Ferdinand affords,  
 Follow'd by thousand swords in firm array,  
 Impatient for the fight, at one slight nod  
 Of thine for any enterprize prepared.  
 In thy arbitrement is placed the life  
 Of the oppressors; thine and thy son's honour;  
 The freedom of us all. That which thy sword  
 May yet obtain, that which thou yet may'st lose

From

From cowardice, thy doubts, thy hopes, thy fears,  
Our loss and our disgrace maturely weigh,  
And finally resolve.

‘ *Gu.* What do I hear?

To thee can I yield credence? Who obtain'd  
So much for our advantage? Hitherto  
Profuse alone in empty promises  
Sixtus and Ferdinand were tardy friends.  
Who now impels them, who? ..

‘ *Ray.* Dost thou ask that?

Hast thou so soon forgotten then that I  
Repair'd to Naples and the Tyber's banks?  
That there twelve months I tarried? To what elme  
Can I transport myself, and not inspire,  
Where'er I go, resentment and abhorrence?  
Among what people can I drag my days,  
Into whose bosoms I shall not transfuse  
All, all my indignation, and at once  
Excite in them compassion for myself  
And for my friends? Who now remains  
Deaf to my lamentations? — For our shame  
Thou art alone so, father; where thou oughtest,  
More than all others, to abhor the yoke,  
And feel its weight: thou, whom I call my father,  
Art equally with me the tyrant's foe;  
And art by them, e'en more than I am, scorn'd.  
Thou, once the best among good citizens,  
For thy too facile criminal endurance  
Art now among the guilty ones the worst.  
Ah, make, with thy infirm refusal, make  
Our fetters and thy infamy eternal!  
All now perceive that we are fit to serve,  
But not to live: yes, wait, wait on for time,  
Till time is ours no more: those hoary locks  
For fresh disgraces keep; and palliate  
With false compassion for thy son, which he  
With all his heart abhors and disavows,  
Thy ignominious cowardice.

‘ *Gu.* My son,

For such indeed thou art, no less than thou,  
Fervid with youth and generous vehemence,  
I once thus thunder'd; but that time is past;  
E'en now I am not vile, nor deem'st thou so  
Who thus aspersest me; but I have ceased  
To act by chance.

‘ *Ray.* Thou art resign'd to live

Each day by chance, and wilt not act by chance?  
What art thou? What are we? Would not the hope,  
The most precarious, of revenge, now be  
A state more certain than the doubtful one,  
The apprehensive one, in which we're doom'd  
Trembling, to live?

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‘ *Gu.* Thou

*Gu.* Thou know'st that for myself

I tremble not.

*Ray.* Then would'st thou say for me,  
I absolve thee from all paternal care  
On my account. We both are citizens,  
And nothing else to-day; and there remains  
Far more for me than for thyself to lose.  
To the meridian of my days have I  
Scarcely attain'd; and thou towards night declinest.  
Children thou hast; like thee I am a father;  
I have an offspring but too numerous,  
And of that helpless age that they are fit  
Only to wake compassion in my heart.—  
Different, far different, are my ties from thine.  
I see a lovely consort, of myself  
The better part, eternally in tears  
Beside me pining: when they see her weep,  
My children flock around, and ask her why;  
And they too weep with her. Their sorrows read  
My heart; and I'm constrain'd to weep by stealth.  
But soon the sad remembrance disenchants  
Each soft affection of my wither'd heart,  
That 'tis not fitting for a slave to love  
Objects not his. My consort is not mine,  
My children are not mine, while I permit  
Him, whosoe'er he be, that is a tyrant,  
In this place to inhale the vital air.  
I have no tie now left in all the world  
Except the stern inexorable oath,  
Tyrants and tyranny to extirpate.

*Gu.* Would'st thou slay two of them: to willing slaves  
Will tyrants e'er be wanting?

*Ray.* To the free  
Will swords be wanting? Let them rise by thousands,  
By thousands they shall fall, or I will fall.

*Gu.* I am subdued by thy decisive will.  
I, not unworthy of a son like thee,  
Would to thy noble rage commit myself,  
If of our arms, and not of foreign powers,  
Thou would'st avail thyself. I see not, no,  
For our sakes, Rome and Ferdinand in arms;  
But for the injury of the Medici.  
We place them in these walls ourselves, but who  
At will can chace them afterwards from thence?  
The mercenary soldiers of a king  
Seem not to me the harbingers of freedom.

*Sal.* I thus reply to thee. The faith of Rome,  
The faith of Ferdinand I warrant not:  
It is the accustomed plan of those who reign  
Alternately to give it or resume it.  
In the suspicion common to them both,

Their



Their mutual envy, and in what is call'd  
State policy, do thou to-day confide.  
Both fain would domineer o'er us ; but one  
Prevents the other. Pity for our state  
Their heart conceives not ; nor have I alleged it :  
But long experience, to our shame, persuades them  
That popular and fluctuating rule,  
The turbulence of faction, render us  
Slow to resolve, irresolute in act.  
Each of them fears that, on the Tuscan ruins,  
A single Tuscan chieftain should arise,  
Who may suffice to annihilate the one,  
If with the other leagued. Behold at once  
The royal knot untwisted : private ends  
Prompt both alliances. If otherwise,  
Think'st thou that I should ever dare to urge  
Reliance on the friendship of a king ?

' *Ray*. And were it otherwise, dost thou believe  
That I should inconsiderately relax  
The reins, that I, with persevering hand,  
O'er the reboundings of my struggling will,  
Have held so many years ? I utter'd not  
By accident inflammatory words  
To thee ; by accident thou didst not hear me  
Exasperate with pungent virulence  
The tyrant's rage against me. Long I spake not,  
While silence might assist me ; but the proud,  
Imprudent tauntings that have madden'd them  
To injure me, by prudence were inspired.  
To my vile fellow-slaves I had in vain  
Our general wrongs adduced ; for private ones  
Alone establish in corrupted minds  
Right to retaliation. I could find  
Abettors of my vengeance, if alone  
I of myself discoursed ; but not one man  
Could I e'er find discoursing of my country.  
Hence (ah opprobrious and cruel silence,  
But indispensable !) I never dared  
To name my country, never. But to thee,  
Who art not of the common herd of men,  
Can I refrain from naming her ? Ah no !—  
The object of our enterprize consists  
In slaying the two tyrants : but 'twill be  
Of far more difficult accomplishment  
To fashion after consequences well ;  
To give to inanition life once more ;  
To re-create our prostrate commonwealth,  
To make it once more strong, and capable  
Of liberty ; to make its pulses beat,  
Now languishing, with vigorous, virtuous health.  
Now, say'st thou not that we're confederate

To a most holy purpose? I alone  
 Am leader of this lofty brotherhood;  
 He is but one, as thou may'st also be,  
 Of its component parts. We have, thou seest,  
 Great instruments; and courage greater still:  
 Sublime the end, and worthy of ourselves.  
 Thou, father, from a project great as this,  
 Wilt thou shrink back dishearten'd? Thy consent  
 Grant me, oh grant me; nothing else is wanting.  
 The swords unscabbarded are raised already:  
 Give, give the signal only, and thou seest them  
 In their devoted bosoms plunged at once,  
 And make an ample space for liberty.

' *Gu.* Thou hast a hero's mind. — A noble shame,  
 Astonishment, resentment, hope, and rage,  
 All hast thou raised in me. Sense of old age,  
 Courage of manhood, and the fire of youth,  
 What hast thou not? My guide and my commander,  
 My deity art thou. — It shall be thine  
 Alone, the honour of this enterprise;  
 With thee its dangers I will only share!  
 Thou say'st, that nought is wanting but my name  
 To accomplish it. Henceforward to thy will  
 That name, and all its influence, I yield:  
 Dispose, elect, and whomsoever thou wilt  
 Rescind from our confederates. Keep alone  
 A weapon for thy father: thou shalt teach me  
 What post I should fill up, what blow inflict,  
 The whole shall teach me, when the whole is ready:  
 In thee and thy judicious rage I trust.

' *Ray.* But ... more than thou may'st think ... that time draws,  
 near.

Thou wilt not be inconstant?

' *Gu.* I am *thy* father:

Dost thou expect to change?

' *Ray.* Then whet thy blade,

For at the dawn of day ... but who approaches?

Bianca! ... Oh my friend, let us avoid her.

The last directions to this mighty work

Haste we to give. To thee I shall return,

Father, ere long, and then thou shalt know all.'

In the fourth act, Lorenzo and Julian discover some outlines of the plot of Salviati, and make approaches to Raymond and Guglielmo, but without effect. On the whole, this act somewhat lingers, and falls off in business and interest from the preceding. — The fifth act has great merit. Raymond is just risen, and preparing to go out; when Bianca, who has observed his restlessness during the night, attempts to win from him the secret of his purpose. The entire scene is noble and pathetic. She obtains a glimpse of his aim,

when the father of Raymond arrives to detain her at home. The church-bell tolls for the mass, during which the assassination is to be attempted, while these parties are assembled. Raymond goes away, and Guglielmo completes the discovery of the plan to Bianca. The author has not ventured, as an English dramatist would have done, to shift the scene into the church, and to display the abortive attempt in action: but Raymond returns to his apartment mortally wounded in a scuffle with Julian, whom he has slain. He is followed by Lorenzo, triumphant; Salviati having missed his blow, and being now at the mercy of the Grand-duke, who orders the execution of the conspirators. The character of Raymond is admirably drawn, and supported throughout the piece: even in his fall, he preserves a nobleness which divides with his conqueror the approbation of the spectator.

This sublime tragedy is better suited for representation on a Parisian than on a London theatre: but still, with some abridgement of the declamatory passages, with some increase of practical bustle, and above all with frequent variations of scene and a progressive magnificence of locality, the piece might be borne among ourselves. From the house of Raymond to the mansion of Lorenzo, from the palace of the Gonfalonier to the cathedral of Florence, the opportunity for a climax of decoration was complete; and this most important source of gratification, which in an opera is never neglected, has here been deliberately sacrificed to an improbable unity of place. Even where the action implies sameness of locality, it is by prudent poets deemed conducive to stage-effect to contrive some change of decoration. So, in the musical monodrama of Ramler, intitled *Ino*, while her soliloquy in recitative goes on, she plunges from the rock, and finds herself suddenly surrounded by tritons and mermaids, who carry her in triumph on a car of shell, and close the piece with an harmonious chorus: in this case, the effect would have been feeble without the concluding spectacle.

Compared with the conspiracy of the Pazzi, *Don Garcia* is but a dull dark tragedy, full of an argumentative eloquence more adapted for the epopea. Cosmo, the Grand-duke of Florence, has three sons, Diego, Piero, and Garcia. He is jealous of Salviati, whose family have been hereditary enemies of the Medici, and consults his sons about the conduct to be pursued: when Diego advises the use of force, Piero that of cunning, and Garcia that of clemency. It appears that Garcia is in love with Julia, the daughter of Salviati, who remains as an hostage in the Grand-duke's power. Cosmo offers to Garcia the hand of Julia, on the condition of his assassinating

sinating the father; and Garcia, with an excess of depravity which is wholly unprepared by his apparently kind and enthusiastic character, is induced, in order to save the threatened life of Julia, to undertake the foul deed. Piero is then instructed to decoy Salviati to the place of sacrifice, and leads thither instead his elder brother Diego, whom Garcia dispatches. Cosmo comes to view the body of his enemy, finds that of his eldest son, and stabs Garcia with his own hand. The atrocity equals the improbability of these situations, which belong to the class of moral caricature, or of tragedy run mad, as in Titus Andronicus. A few scattered maxims of Machiavelian state-craft form the only striking passages of this dire composition.

We must add a word or two concerning *Saul*. It is a good specimen of the sacred drama, and adapted for representation at boarding-schools and in private families. Though the catastrophe is imperfect, and the style less beautiful than that of the *Esther* or the *Athaliah* of Racine, it contains much fine poetry. The performance of sacred dramas on Sundays is tolerated in all catholic and in some protestant provinces, and certainly tends to infuse a tasteful piety, with a knowledge of Jewish history and antiquities.

To give our readers an idea of the spirit and quality of Mr. Lloyd's translation, we shall quote first the Italian and then the English opening of the *Orestes*: *Electra* speaks.

“ *Notte funesta, atroce, orribil notte,  
Presente ognora al mio pensiero ! ogni anno,  
Oggi ha due lustri, ritornar ti veggio  
Vestita d'atre tenebre di sangue :  
Eppur quel sangue, ch' espiar ti debbe,  
Finor non scorre. — O rimembranza ! O vista !  
Agamemnon, misero padre, in queste  
Soglie svenato io ti vedea ; svenato,  
E per qual mano ! — O notte, almen mi scorgi  
Non vista, al sacro avello. Ah pur ch' Egisto  
Pria che raggiorni, a disturbar non venga  
Il mio pianto, che al cenere paterno  
Misera reco in annual tributo !  
Tributo, il sol ch' io dar per or ti possa,  
Di pianto, o padre, e di non morta speme  
Di possibil vendetta. Ah, sì : te'l giuro :  
Se in Argo io vivo, entro tua reggia, al fianco  
D'iniqua madre, e d'un Egisto io schiava,  
Null' altro fammi ancor soffrir tal vita,  
Che la speranza di vendetta. E lungi,  
Ma vivo, Oreste. Io ti salvai, fratello :  
A te mi serbo ; infin che sorga il giorno,  
Che tu, non pianto, ma sangue nemico  
Scorrer farai sulla paterna tomba.”*

Mr. Lloyd

Mr. Lloyd thus renders this prologue, or soliloquy, or first scene:

*Electra.* Oh fatal, horrible, atrocious night,  
Oh night, for ever present to my thoughts!  
Now, for two lustres, every year, I've witness'd,  
Fall'd in ensanguined darkness, thy return;  
Yet, 'tis not shed, the expiatory blood,  
The blood that thou requirest. Oh remembrance!  
Oh Agamemnon, oh my wretched father!  
Within these thresholds I beheld thee slain;  
And by what hand? To his most sacred tomb,  
Oh night, thou guidest me, by all unseen;  
Except, indeed, that, ere to-morrow dawn,  
Ægisthus do not come to interrupt  
The tears, which I disconsolately bring  
In annual tribute to his sacred ashes!  
The only tribute which I now can give thee  
Of past affection, and the only pledge  
Of hope, not yet quite banish'd from my bosom,  
Of possible revenge. Ah! yes: I swear,  
If yet I live in Argos, in this palace,  
Near a flagitious mother, and the slave  
Of an Ægisthus, it is *that* revenge,  
*That* possible revenge, and nothing else,  
*That* gives me strength t'endure the life I lead.  
Orestes yet, though far from Argos, lives.  
'Twas I that saved thee, brother; and for thee  
I save myself, until the day arise,  
When thou shalt shed upon my father's tomb,  
Not tears, but life-blood of an enemy.'

Precision and elegance no doubt characterize this imitation: but in euphony it is somewhat deficient. We observe many lines, if not here, yet in other scenes, which are not to be scanned. An English heroic blank-verse should consist of five feet, of which the last two must be iambic; and a pause, or cæsura, resting on a long syllable, must occur at the end of the second or the third foot. With these conditions, which involve five syllables, the remaining five syllables may be long or short, and the feet be trochaic or iambic. A supernumerary short syllable is tolerated at the end of the line, especially in dramatic writing. In *Don Garcia*, occur these words:

' although the son  
Of the brother of my mother, he, no less  
Than was his father once, is our sworn foe.'

The penultimate of these lines can not in any way be read into legitimate metre. Perhaps Mr. Lloyd, like the epic poet Southey, to whom in a prefixed sonnet he dedicates these volumes, thinks that occasionally a voluntary dissonance in-  
terrups

interrupts agreeably the sameness of regular metre. However this may be, great merit is due to Mr. L. for the patience and perseverance, as well as for the propriety and effect, with which his long task has been executed. Translators too commonly confine their efforts to the beauties of foreign authors, and think that our literature is best enriched by the transplantation only of chosen specimens: but to one reader *this* and to another *that* effusion is most valuable; and perhaps original enterprizes are more frequently suggested by the slips than by the achievements of genius, since failure bestows hope, while success inflicts despair, on rivalry.

**ART. III.** *On Gun-shot Wounds of the Extremities*, requiring the different Operations of Amputation, with their After-treatment, with four explanatory Plates. By G. J. Guthrie, Deputy-Inspector of Military Hospitals. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

**C**ALAMITOUS as war is in its immediate effects, yet, like other evils physical and moral, it is attended by some beneficial consequences; of which, one that is very far from inconsiderable is the means which it affords for improving the practice of surgery. Of these benefits, both the English and the French have not been backward to avail themselves: but, as the French were personally engaged in fighting before the English, their experience was gained at an earlier period of the contentions which have lately agitated Europe; and they had already acquired much important knowledge, before the subject was taken up by the English. We have reason to believe, however, that our countrymen have now fully equalled their rivals in real advances in their profession; although no work has hitherto appeared of equal importance with the French publications, especially that of Larrey. The treatise now before us is the most considerable that has fallen under our notice, as containing a detailed account of the experience acquired in actual service; and it conveys a very respectable idea both of the talents of the writer and of the general state of the science of his colleagues. The object of the work is to point out under what circumstances gun-shot wounds of the extremities require the operation of amputation, what are the best methods of performing it, and how the subsequent treatment is to be conducted.

Mr. Guthrie commences by discussing a preliminary question of great importance, and which has been the subject of much controversy; viz. whether limbs that are so essentially injured as to require amputation ought to be removed immediately,

diately, or whether a length of time should not be permitted to elapse, in order that the patient may be brought into a better condition for bearing the operation. He supplies an historical detail of the opinions that have been maintained on this point; from which we learn that the older surgeons, as Wiseman and Le Dran, were in favour of the early operation, but that more recently the contrary doctrine has prevailed, and received the powerful sanction of the French Academy and of John Hunter. Larrey, however, has again adverted to the early operation, which he decidedly recommends; and the same practice is warmly advocated by the present author. He controverts the rule of postponing the operation, both by shewing that the opinion was embraced on hypothetical grounds, and still more by stating that the ample experience of the Peninsular war very decisively establishes the benefit of the contrary mode. The hypothetical reasons on which the delay has been advised are principally the following. It has been said that the shock given to the constitution by the wound alone is often as much as its powers are able to endure, and that they would not be equal to any additional suffering; that the inflammatory fever necessarily consequent on the wound is frequently very violent; and that it must be greatly augmented by superadding the effect of the operation. It has also been supposed that, after the inflammatory fever arising from the wound has subsided, and suppuration has taken place, the system is reduced to a state of languor or inaction which is more favourable for recovery after the operation, because it is less susceptible of a new attack of fever.—To these observations, it is replied that the removal of a shattered limb, producing constant pain and irritation, is less likely to increase and prolong the state of fever, than the temporary addition of pain which is caused by the operation; and that there is more danger of the constitution ultimately sinking under the debilitating process which ensues, when the parts are left to the efforts of nature, than when all extraneous matters are carefully taken away, and only a clear incised wound is left. If feverish symptoms occur to an alarming extent, it is better to moderate them by the appropriate antiphlogistic treatment, than that we should trust to an uncertain process, which we have it not in our power to regulate.

We shall quote a few paragraphs in which the author's opinions on this point are stated: but, in order to understand his remarks, the reader must bear in mind that, when Mr. Guthrie insists on the *early* operation, it is not meant that it should be performed instantly after the wound has been inflicted,

flucted, but after a short interval, varying according to circumstances, although perhaps never more than 48 hours.

‘ During the course of the Peninsular war, the success of amputations performed on the field of battle became so notorious, even among the soldiery, that the anxiety expressed by them, to have these operations executed with as little delay as possible, has frequently been prejudicial; for as much attention must be paid to avoid operating too soon, as too late, and perhaps for a reason quite contrary to that usually received as legitimate for not operating, viz. that the sufferer may have time to recover from the shock of the injury, and approach as near as possible to a state of health; and the farther he is from this state of health, the greater the chance of a fatal termination.

‘ If a soldier at the end of two, four, or six hours after the injury, has recovered from the general constitutional alarm occasioned by the blow, his pulse becomes regular and good, his stomach easy, he is less agitated, his countenance revives, and he begins to feel pain, stiffness, and uneasiness in the part: he will now undergo the operation with the greatest advantage, and if he bears it well, of which there will be but little doubt, he will recover in the proportion of nine cases out of ten in any operation on the upper extremity, or below the middle of the thigh, without any of the bad consequences usually mentioned by authors, as following such amputations.

‘ If, on the contrary, the operation be performed before the constitution has recovered itself, to a certain degree, from the alarm it has sustained, the additional injury will most probably be more than he can bear, and he will gradually sink under it and die.’—

‘ If the operation be delayed beyond the first twenty-four hours in some persons, and in others thirty-six hours, pain, heat, tumefaction, and the other constituents of inflammation come on rapidly; attended by increased arterial action, severe nervous twitchings, thirst, heat of skin, general restlessness, delirium, and the patient is soon carried off, if the injury has been extensive. Many very severe wounds do not terminate so quickly, the symptoms exist in a less degree, and may be moderated by the antiphlogistic treatment until suppuration is established, and the primary high excitement reduced within the limits of hectic fever, depending upon the irritation of incurable parts.

‘ In any period from the time inflammation has commenced in the seat of injury, and symptomatic fever is established, amputation is performed under very different circumstances than when it has been done prior to their supervening; the parts to be divided are no longer in a healthy state; they have taken on inflammatory action tending to suppuration, and will not unite by adhesive inflammation, as they would have done if they had been divided forty-eight hours sooner. The operation, instead of relieving the symptomatic fever, greatly increases it. It is now really a violence superadded to the injury; and the patient dies, without very active means are employed for his relief, and even under



under the most vigorous and attentive treatment it frequently proves fatal, although his life may be prolonged for some days.'

Having thus given, at considerable length, his reasons for preferring early operations, the author now enters into a more minute detail, and applies his general principles to particular circumstances and individual cases. He divides operations, according to the period at which they are performed, into primary and secondary; calling them

'Primary, when performed within forty-eight hours after the receipt of the injury; or before the constitution has become affected in consequence of the accident, or inflammatory action in the part, constituting symptomatic fever.

'Secondary, when performed after this symptomatic fever has continued some time and subsided; suppuration being fully established, the strength of the patient considerably reduced, and the powers of nature found incapable of effecting a cure, or of supporting longer the disease without material disadvantage; which in general is a period of from three to six weeks.'

This comparative view confirms the conclusion that had been already formed in favour of an early operation, and seems to prove that many of the bad consequences, commonly attributed to amputations in general, are owing merely to their improper delay. We meet with some good remarks on the difference between the situation of patients that require amputation in military practice, and those under domestic treatment; from which it may be perceived that, although the arguments of Mr. Guthrie chiefly refer to the former class, they are also in a considerable degree applicable to the latter.

After this important preliminary question has been thoroughly discussed, we proceed to a description of the operation, with the general principles which are to be observed in performing it. Mr. G. commences with some judicious reasoning, which seems to possess a degree of originality, on the manner of performing what he styles the primary and the secondary operations; arising from a difference in the condition of the parts undergoing amputation. In the former case, the parts are in their sound and natural state, but in the latter frequently in the reverse; a circumstance that produces a variation not merely in the method of operating, but in the principle on which the cure is to be conducted. In the early operation, this is generally to be accomplished by adhesion; whereas, in the latter, the more tedious processes of suppuration and granulation are absolutely necessary.

'In primary amputations, or in the natural state of parts, the loose attachment of the cellular membrane to the fascia, and to the muscles beneath, permits of much retractile power in the integuments;

teguments; and when the first incision is made through the fascia, they retract considerably; and this is powerfully assisted by an assistant grasping the limb with both hands previous to the incision being made, and pulling the integuments as much upwards as possible, which puts the skin to be divided on the stretch, and renders its division more easy to the surgeon, and less painful to the patient, especially if the limb be again firmly grasped below, and the integuments made tense downwards.—

‘In operations performed from the third to the twelfth day, in parts at a little distance from the injury, this retraction will not take place sufficiently, either naturally, or by the force of an assistant, from the quantity of coagulable lymph thrown out; it will in these cases be necessary to turn a little of it back, and to separate it to a greater distance from the parts beneath, without however turning it back as usually recommended like the top of a glove. It will also be frequently necessary to dissect away with the point of the knife some of the jelly-like substance that fills the cellular membrane underneath, if union be desired.’

It is stated to be a recommendation of the primary operations, that there are commonly but few arteries which require the ligature, not more than one half or one third as many as in the secondary operations; thus saving much pain and danger by materially shortening the duration of the process. An improvement of some importance has been made during the course of the Peninsular war, in cutting off both the ends of the ligatures close to the knot on the artery, and letting the small remains of the ligatures escape through the wound without any farther care. Mr. G. observes:

‘I consider this improvement as very valuable, in all cases that will not unite by the first intention. The ligatures, if there be many, form into ropes, are the cause of much irritation, and are frequently pulled away with the dressings; by cutting them off these evils are avoided, and the knots will come away with the discharge. It is adopting the practice, in a view diametrically opposite to that of its advocates, but it will be found very advantageous in all cases of operations performed in unsound parts, or in irritable, or bad constitutions, where union will not take place, or only in a slight degree.’

A point of practice, in which the experience of the late war has led to a conclusion very different from that which has been generally adopted by the English surgeons, is that the union of the parts after amputation is not uniformly to be attempted by what is called the first intention. Larrey, in always proceeding on the plan of keeping open the wound, seems to have fallen into the opposite error; although, from the following remarks, it will appear that Mr. Guthrie agrees with him under certain circumstances.

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‘ In unsound parts, union by the first intention will not take place, their vital powers are frequently weak, and unequal to carry on any high action, or support themselves under it. When parts thus situated are brought down in close contact by adhesive plasters, the patient is for the first twenty-four or forty-eight hours easier, he then becomes restless, irritable, the stump swells, the constriction of the plasters brings on inflammation, more evident however by the tumefaction than the redness of the parts. There is constant fever; a gradual prostration of strength, and the patient at the end of two or three weeks dies exhausted.

‘ In other cases of secondary amputation, where the operation has been performed in parts apparently sound, and the wound has been brought into close contact, the symptomatic fever shall soon return with violence, and continue; the integuments shall unite, there shall be little or no external swelling or inflammation, and all will appear to do well in the wound, yet the constitutional irritation shall increase rather than diminish, the skin become permanently hot, the pulse very quick, with a gradual deterioration of all the symptoms usually attendant on irritative fever, under which the patient at the end of ten or fourteen days is carried off.’

These observations on the general principles on which amputation is to be conducted are followed by a description of the particular operations; viz. that of the lower extremity at the hip-joint, of the thigh, the leg, the foot and toes, the upper extremity at the shoulder-joint, the head of the humerus, the arm, the elbow-joint, the fore-arm, the metacarpus and fingers. The only part which we shall especially notice is the first of these sections, the amputation of the lower extremity at the hip-joint; which has seldom been performed, and is generally mentioned as a dreadful operation, that is never to be advised. It has, however, been attempted both by the French and the English surgeons in the late war; and, though hitherto with imperfect success, it appears that cases occur in which it is admissible, when it affords the only prospect of saving life: while the improved experience of modern surgery gives us ground to hope that future attempts may be more fortunate. Mr. Guthrie subjoins a long detail of the different cases in which the operation has been performed, and endeavours to account for the unsuccessful issue of most of them. His reasoning is at least specious, and we are disposed to coincide in the ensuing remarks, with which he sums up the argument:

‘ These cases prove, that the operation is not only necessary, but practicable, and that it may be effected with success under certain circumstances. This being granted, it necessarily follows, that the operation ought to be recommended and performed in every case in which it can alone bring relief, or offer a prospect of success.

success. No man should, therefore, be allowed to die without its being proposed to him; and if it be a case for primary operation, the sooner it is done on the field of battle, consistent with propriety, the greater will be the chance of success, for the patient cannot live to the period for secondary amputation. It is in this, and other operations high in the thigh, that the question of time is most important, for haste is as injurious as delay, when improperly applied.

‘ If the patient has suffered much loss of blood, or is in a state of syncope, or nearly approaching to it, unable to articulate, with a pulse scarcely perceptible, and the skin clammy and cold, an immediate operation would only hasten his death; but if excited by stimulants and cordials, he will have some chance of recovering himself in an hour or two, so as to undergo the operation with a better prospect of success, or he will in that period sink and die. If, on the contrary, he is brought to the surgeon, although much alarmed and reduced by the sudden shock and loss of blood, with strong sensations of pain, expressed by his cries for assistance, convulsive motions of the limb and body, and the powers of the sensorium not destroyed, the operation should be performed immediately; or, instead of becoming more calm and collected, he will gradually sink into the state of the first described, and be unable to bear the operation. On the other hand, the first mentioned, if he be excitable, will in time rather approach to the state of the latter, and from the pain, &c. he suffers, will call for the performance of the operation. This violent nervous commotion, however, is not common; it depends upon particular idiosyncrasies, and will never in the first be so excessive as in the last.’

The remainder of the volume, though not the least valuable part to the actual practitioner, affords less scope for critical remark, as it is chiefly occupied with a description of the method of performing the amputation of particular limbs. The directions are apparently judicious, and they are given with that precision which indicates a thorough knowledge of the subject, the result of much experience matured by a sound judgment. After the above observations, it will not be necessary for us to add any general character of the work; and we need scarcely say that we consider it as a valuable addition to the stock of knowledge which we before possessed on practical surgery, and as containing a fund of original information on topics of great importance.

ART.

**ART. IV.** *The History of the Island of Guernsey, Part of the ancient Duchy of Normandy, from the remotest Period of Antiquity to the Year 1814.* Containing an interesting Account of the Island; its Government, Civil, Military, and Ecclesiastical; peculiar Privileges, Customs, &c. With Particulars of the neighbouring Islands of Alderney, Serk, and Jersey. Compiled from the valuable Collections of the late Henry Budd, Esq. His Majesty's Receiver, and more than Thirty Years Resident in the Island; (collected by him for the Purpose of Publication, which his Death prevented;) as well as from authentic Documents, Royal Charters, Public Records, and Private Manuscripts. By William Berry, late of the College of Arms, London. Embellished and illustrated with a correct Map of the Island; View of the Town; Plates of the Churches, Castles, and other Public Buildings, Gentlemen's Seats, &c. &c. &c. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

**T**OPOGRAPHY, or rather Chorography, is become a public passion in this country. The basis or lower shelf of our libraries is laid, with allegoric propriety, in a fifty-fold folio collection of county-histories:—hence ascend as it were the quarto bands of political theorists and annalists, who connect us with the rest of Europe;—while the upper shelves contain, in slim octavo or duodecimo, the more volatile distillations of public mind, the poems, plays, romances, and essays. We have no doubt that a history of the island of Guernsey will be deemed a welcome appendage to the extant mass of local description, with which our literature is somewhat heavily adorned.

One mischief results from the study of petty details; viz. that those who attend to the little never accomplish the great. The eye, which is accustomed to dwell on the parish-churches of a county, or the local seats of the gentry, soon mistakes relative for positive rank; and, if called to decide about the plan of a new gaol, a new hospital, or a new church, it will bestow approbation on what is positively contemptible, though relatively stately. On the contrary, those who give a select attention to European monuments of art, and disdainfully overlook the *paltry* edifices of every place and situation, will reserve their efforts for enterprizes that are ornamental to their neighbourhood and honourable to their country. A vast expenditure is issued yearly by every shire for some objects of public utility; yet how very rare is any tasteful attention to those constructions, by which a long posterity will estimate our refinement and our magnificence!

We wish that county-historians, instead of crowding their books with plates, would carefully omit the notice of every thing that is insignificant, and rather assist its demolition by

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their neglect than secure its longevity by their record. If our very small parishes could be consolidated, and one good edifice supported in the room of two that are awkward, the catalogue of our churches would be more honourable to our devotional taste than it is at present. The bridges in our roads, also, are commonly so narrow as not to allow the simultaneous passage of carriages in different directions. Wherever such public nuisances exist, the chorographer should denounce them to the country. With inferior means of national expenditure, "they manage these things better in France." Perhaps our age of architecture is not yet arrived: but it is surely time to prepare for the developement of the national "organ of constructiveness."

In the preface to this work, which is dedicated to the Prince Regent, the author mentions that he has derived assistance from Mr. Falle's *History of Jersey*; and from the papers of the late Mr. Henry Budd, resident as his Majesty's receiver during about thirty years in the island of Guernsey. Mr. Berry, however, travelled over the district personally, to collect materials and to make sketches; and he praises the communicative hospitality of the genteeler inhabitants. He has also accumulated much information from French antiquaries: but the aid of his predecessor Dicey is valued low.

Guernsey, as well as the neighbouring islands of Jersey, Alderney, and Serk, was subject to the kings of France until the year 887, when Charles the Gross ceded the province of Neustria to the Normans. This cession was confirmed five years afterward by Charles the Simple, and then incorporated by Rollo with the duchy of Normandy. On the acquisition of England by William the seventh duke of Normandy, in 1066, these islands became annexed to the domain of the crown of Great Britain, and have ever since continued their adhesion.

The history of Guernsey is here divided into six periods: i. From the original settlement of the island, to its incorporation with the duchy of Normandy in 892. ii. From that period to the removal of the seat of government from France to England by William the Conqueror. iii. From the latter event to the decease of Richard I. in 1199. iv. From the surrender of the duchy of Normandy by King John, to the deposition of Richard the Second. v. From the accession of Henry IV. to the decease of Elizabeth in 1603. vi. From the accession of the Scotch king to the present time. These periods are well chosen, because they mark real changes in the relative condition of the inhabitants of Guernsey. — The introduction, however, is somewhat superfluous, and repeats

repeats many very questionable dreams of the antiquaries. According to Mr. Berry, Guernsey was first peopled by fugitive followers of Ambiorix.

Chapter i. treats of the situation, extent, division, and population of the island, and is illustrated by a view of Saint Peter's Port. The entire population is estimated at 21,300 persons. — Chap. ii. enumerates the several appellations by which these islands have been known in antient and modern history, and decides that *Cæsarea* was the antient name of Guernsey in the *Itinerary of Antonine*; which opinion differs from that of Cellarius and D'Anville. Some learned commentaries on the state of Phœnician or Carthaginian commerce with Britain, written by Dr. Ubele, are attached to this section. — Chap. iii. inquires who were the antient inhabitants of Guernsey, previously to its incorporation with Normandy. Here, the manuscript archives of Dol are made to supply interesting illustrations. — The fourth chapter describes the islands under the first six dukes of Normandy: but something more of reference was desirable to justify so complete a detail. Views of Ivy Castle and Vale Castle illustrate this section. — The fifth chapter includes the history of the islands under the kings of England until the death of Richard I.; and the sixth goes on to the deposition of Richard II. Great skill and knowlege are displayed in attaching to local occurrences so much of general history as these chapters contain. — Chap. vii. continues the insular history to the time of Elizabeth; and the eighth, to the year 1814.

A valuable chapter is the ninth, which contains incidental remarks on the insular tenures, coins, weights, and measures. Some corn-rents are levied in this island, which have occasioned a singular dilemma, best reported in the author's words:

‘ However inconsistent, it has hitherto been a matter of much doubt whether persons owing wheat rents were not obliged to discharge them in corn of the growth of the island, and no other, although the whole produce of every acre under cultivation would scarcely pay one-half of the several rents due upon the houses in the High Street, where not a single grain can possibly be grown. Yet, notwithstanding this impossibility, and even a restriction under certain penalties, made by the court itself, by ordinance dated 20th October, 1808, to prevent the purchase, by any one, of more wheat, barley, and rye, of the growth of the island, than absolutely necessary for existence (and which was not repealed till the 17th January, 1814); the present bailiff, in 1811, refused good wheat, insisting upon the payment in the growth of the island; and actually went so far, as to imprison one of his tenants of a

house in High Street (Mr. Henry-Durel Jeremie) to enforce it. The subject has, very properly, and much to Mr. Jeremie's credit, been brought before the Lords of the Council, who have lately given it as their opinion, that wheat of the growth of the island cannot be exacted. A point of the utmost consequence to every tenant, who can hereafter pay his rent in kind, should his landlord, at the time it is due, refuse to affix such a fair price in money as may induce him to pay in cash: for, according to the present mode of assessment, the price is not fixed till after the tenant is precluded the option of paying in corn; and though the payment in wheat might possibly irritate the landlord ever after to demand corn, and refuse money, yet the general payment of wheat, which in many instances could neither be consumed nor vended, would ultimately induce the receiver at once to fix a fair price in money.'

The tenth chapter, which traces the geography of the parochial districts, is illustrated with views of all the ten churches which decorate the island; and also with sketches of the principal country-seats of the gentry. Many grave-stones are copied with redundant industry; and the plates are more numerous and less beautiful than an artist would desire: but they tell their tale plainly. — The eleventh chapter, collects the laws and customs of the land, which differ widely from those of England: a Norman common law, or set of precedents, laid down by an arbitrary court, forms the basis of the jurisprudence. — In chap. xii. Mr. Berry describes the civil constitution and royal court: the public prison, and other administrative institutions. Nepotism is a grievance imputed to the government of Guernsey; the bailiff and jurats, to whom the practical sway is committed, having so intermarried with one another's relations, that a family-compact rules the island. — The thirteenth chapter treats of the military government: the fourteenth, of the interior government: the fifteenth, of the legislation of the island: the sixteenth, of the convention of the states; and the seventeenth, of the privileges of the islands. In the eighteenth, the author comes to the ecclesiastical history of Guernsey; and here we find a horrible anecdote of persecution signaling even this petty territory:

'Edward VI.'s short reign was nevertheless crowned with more success than his father's; the Reformation made rapid advances towards completion, and the English Liturgy, more commonly called the Service Book, translated into French, was transmitted to these islands, and used in all the churches. But upon Mary's accession to the throne of England it received a severe shock, and Popery was again introduced.

'The cruel rage of bigotry, superstition, and fanaticism, even extended to this island with increased barbarity, in the commission of a deed, at the bare recital of which, human nature shrinks with horror



horror and detestation. Katherine Gowches, a poor widow of St. Peter's Port, and her two daughters, were by the then Dean, Jaques Amy, found guilty of heresy, condemned to the fire, and delivered over to the bailiff, Elier Gosselin, who ordered their execution to take place on the 18th July, 1556. One of them, named Perotine Massey, had married a Protestant minister, who, to avoid persecution, had fled the island; she was at the time great with child, and when at the stake, in the midst of the flames and the anguish of her sufferings, brought forth a lovely boy, which was instantly snatched from the devouring element by one of the bystanders. The news of this extraordinary birth, and miraculous escape of the infant, was immediately communicated; but the inhuman bailiff, whose very name, stained with such unheard-of cruelty, should be held in abhorrence, or rather blotted out for ever, (horrid to relate!) ordered the innocent babe to be cast again into the flames, which was accordingly executed, and the little martyr perished with his mother.

Chapter xix. treats of the commerce of the country. The author is a great friend to those liberal principles of trade which propose to allow all nations to barter with all, without any duties, prohibitions, bounties, or restrictions. This is not to be considered as any apology of contraband transactions, but may perhaps help to account for that common persuasion even among the more gentlemanly merchants in Guernsey, that no impropriety attaches to smuggling.

The agriculture and natural productions of the island are examined in the twentieth chapter: the use of *vrac*, or sea-weed, for fuel, is one peculiarity; and the use of ormers, a shell-fish, for food, is another.—The twenty-first chapter furnishes some account of the subject-islands of Alderney, Serk, Herm, Jethou, and Jersey; and general observations on the character of this maritime population conclude the history: to which an appendix of documents is attached, such as a Flora, a Mineralogicon, Charters, Bullas, and Pedigrees.

Altogether, we think that this work deserves respectable rank among the county-histories of Great Britain; since it displays considerable historical knowledge, and appropriate reading in French law-books and continental antiquities. Few of the writers, who have hitherto addicted themselves to this line of composition, have climbed to the comprehensive views of Mr. Berry. In general, a county-history is one perpetual repetition of an emmet's crawl over a grave-stone; and, in the spirit of the memoirs of a parish-clerk, to copy the mural monuments in the churches is the most eminent exertion of the author's assiduity:—but here we find local history made subservient to the dissemination

mination of important archæological instruction; and the insignificance of village-anecdote exalted by attaching it as an indication of the progress of the whole. If the style has not all the polish or elegance of the accomplished scholar, it has much of the fullness and unaffectedness of the ancient chronicle.

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ART. V. *A Treatise on the Nature, Economy, and Practical Management of Bees*; in which the various Systems of the British and Foreign Apiarians are examined, and the most improved Methods laid down for effectually preserving the Lives of the Bees. Containing, also, an accurate Description, illustrated by Plates, of the Hives invented by Lombard, Ducoudré, Huber, Vicat, L'Abbé della Rocca, and other foreign Apiarians; and of a newly invented Hive, for the Purpose of depriving the Bees of their Honey with Safety and Expedition; forming the most complete Guide to the Study and Management of those valuable Insects. By Robert Huish, Author of the *Peruvians*, a Poem, &c. &c. Fellow of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, of Göttingen: Honorary Member of the Imperial Apiarian Society of Vienna; and Corresponding Member of the Agricultural Societies of Bavaria and Silesia. 8vo. pp. 438. 12s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

THE history of the domestic Bee, with all its attractions of curiosity and interest, is neither yet exhausted nor wholly divested of obscurity and apparent contradictions. The author of the present treatise appears to have directed his attention to the culture of this wonderful insect during a period of twenty years; and the professed and praiseworthy object of his publication is to remove those errors and prejudices which have hitherto impeded the rearing of bees, in this country, on an extensive and profitable scale. In the plenitude of his information, however, and in the charity of writing, he embraces a much wider range of discussion and inquiry, as will be manifest from the following exhibition of the subjects of his thirty-two chapters:

‘ On Bees in general. Description of the Queen-bee. On the Drones. On the Common Bees. On Hives in general. On the Position of the Apiary. On the Enemies of Bees. On the Maladies of the Bees. On the Brood. On the Combs of the Bees. On the different Substances which are found in a Hive. On Pollen or Farina. On Wax. On Honey. On Swarms in general. On the Method of preparing Honey and Wax for the Markets. On the Causes of the Mortality of Bees. On the Life of the Bee, and the Period of Duration of a Hive. On the Deprivation of the Hives, and whether it be better to suffocate them, or to deprive them of a Part of their Honey and Wax. On

On the Manner of Feeding Bees. On the Re-establishment of Hives, the Bees of which have perished by accident or want. On the Custom of transporting Hives from Place to Place, for the Purpose of fresh Pasturage, according to the Practice of the Ancients and the Moderns. On the Robberies of Bees, and the Method of preventing them. On the Advantages which accrue to the State, and to Individuals, from the Culture of the Bee. Directions for the Purchase of Hives. On the Countries most beneficially situated for the Culture of the Bee, and the Number of Hives which each Country can support. On the Distance which Bees fly for Food. The Apiarian's Monthly Manual, or Directions for the Management of Bees in every Month of the Year. List of Trees, Plants, and Flowers, from which the Bees extract their Honey and Wax. On the different Species of Bees in various Parts of the World. Method of increasing the Culture of the Bee, by the Formation of an Apiarian Society. On the Manufacture of Mead.'

The more special *contents* of each chapter occupy ten pages. Were we to subtract, however, from this seemingly octavo all that is not original, or not duly authenticated, it would dwindle to a slender pamphlet. Mr. Huish certainly manifests an acquaintance with some of the most distinguished foreign works connected with the object of his pursuit: but he seems to be more conversant in the practical than in the theoretical details of the apiary; and, as an accurate and patient observer of the ways and manners of his favourite insects, he certainly does not surpass the level of some of his precursors, whose discoveries he affects to treat with ridicule. Disposed, then, as he may be to make himself merry at the expence of Reaumur, Schirah, Huber, &c. we cannot help regarding their statements and proofs as intitled to as much respect as his partial argumentation and rustic wit. His allegation, that the queen-bee is at once a mother and a virgin, strikes us as not less inconsistent with the analogies of nature, than the doctrine of her impregnation in the air, which he pretends to deride as altogether fabulous. Has he adverted to all the circumstances detailed by Huber and his assistant? or has he exercised the cautious sagacity which characterizes all their experiments and observations? Can any fact be more conclusive than the state in which the impregnated queen returns to the hive? The reversed position of the sexes of certain winged insects, at the moment of their union, may excite this author's contemptuous sneers: but it is, nevertheless, an appointment of nature, as any one may be convinced who will attentively watch the proceedings of the common domestic fly; and that they embrace, when on wing, in the open air, is a circumstance not concealed from

common observation. Had Mr. Huish made use of the *leaf* or *book* hive, and conducted his researches with the same unwearied coolness as the Genevan naturalist, he would have probably arrived at the same results. At all events, human reasoning and conjectures, on the propriety and fitness of any particular mode of animal reproduction, can never, for a moment, be put in competition with ascertained facts. Were we to suppose that the eggs were fecundated by sexual union when in the body of the queen, and farther vivified by the addition of a fluid when in the breeding cells, we might not only reconcile the conflicting sentiments of intelligent apiarists, but might also be enabled to explain the principle on which the number of drones bears a regular proportion to the population of the colony. The confirmation of such an hypothesis would, moreover, reveal a system of propagation participating, at once, of that which takes place among quadrupeds, birds, and fishes. The experiment, however, reported at page 35, is not quite satisfactory: because, although the ova in question may have been fecundated by the drones, we have no positive evidence that they were so. That bees actually grow, after they have emerged from the breeding cells, we cannot easily believe: but, like other flies, they may escape from their confinement in a condensed form, if we may be allowed the expression, and the subsequent disengagement of their wings, &c. may prevent their re-admission into those cells which formerly sufficed to contain them.

When, from a deficiency of drones, no swarm is likely to be produced, Mr. Huish recommends the adoption of the following method: (p. 44.)

‘ Watch at the entrance of one of your strongest hives, from the hours of eleven to two, the time at which the drones take their flight, and as they come out, or return, catch about thirty or forty of them, and as they have no sting, no danger awaits this operation; confine them in a bottle, or other close vessel until the evening, when you may introduce them to their new habitation. The hive will most readily receive them, the eggs will be fecundated, and in a short time a good swarm may be expected.

‘ I had an excellent opportunity of verifying the truth of this experiment during the course of last October: I was walking in the fields contiguous to my house, when, to my great surprise, I observed a swarm of bees passing at a short distance from me; I knew it could not be a natural, or regular swarm, as the drones in all my hives had been long since killed, and I had no doubt that the same circumstance had taken place in other apiaries. I was therefore convinced that it was a hive which, from some particular reason, had forsaken its dwelling. With great satisfaction I saw the strangers alight on a hedge, and hastening home for a hive,

hive, I soon took possession of my unexpected treasure. My difficulties, however, now were only at their commencement. In what manner were my new guests to be supported. Unfortunately I had not then in my possession any hive with combs, and the season was too far advanced to expect that any combs could then be constructed. By most indefatigable attention, I was enabled to preserve the bees during the winter, and in the spring some combs were constructed. On taking possession of the hive in October, not a single drone was to be found, and I was consequently in despair of obtaining any swarms from it. I therefore determined to adopt the experiment already stated, and the greatest success attended my labours. I introduced about fifty drones, the eggs of the queen were fecundated, and I obtained two swarms from my hive in the course of the summer. I would however advise the person undertaking the above experiment, to move the hive into which he introduces the drones to some little distance from his apiary, as the drones in their flight on the following day will be apt to return to their parent hive.

With regard to any particular facts which Reaumur affirms to have been the subjects of his personal observation, we have not been taught to disbelieve them on slight grounds: but, if it be true that 'there is no wonder in nature which the apiarian has not seen,' Mr. Huish will surely not shrink from the consequence of his own ironical position; nor complain of injustice, if some future writer should treat several of the statements contained in the present treatise with levity, or reject them in the spirit of scepticism.

Among the few facts of an original nature which Mr. Huish appears to have established on satisfactory evidence, we may notice the mode by which the working-bees dispatch the drones; for he shews that, on this occasion, they never use their stings, but gnaw the roots of the wings. He likewise asserts that the bees which are first bred in the combs of a hive are larger than those which are bred in an old stock-hive, the capacity of the cell being diminished by a small film which the bee throws off in quitting it; that the larger the bee, the greater is its indolence; and that the shape of the honey-gatherers is always cylindrical, while that of the farina-gatherers is oval. It should seem that the contents of the honey-bag are reserved for the supply of the common stock; while the portion of mellifluous aliment, destined to the immediate wants of the individual, is circulated through the intestines, and assimilated with the system. (P. 63.)

Many remedies have been suggested for the sting of the bee. Vinegar, urine, the juice of certain plants, as the dandelion, dock, and others, and olive oil, which is said to be a remedy even for the bite of the viper. All these applications, and even water itself

itself, assuage the pain for the moment; but the pain and the inflammation gradually return, as the virtues of the application decrease. The surest method to diminish the effect of the sting, is to extract it immediately, and strike the wound with some goulard or laudanum. I have universally found this application to be the most efficacious. It must however be considered, that the remedy must be suited to the constitution; for that which will succeed with one person will fail with another. There are some persons who assert that, after a certain number of stings received in any period of time whatever, the inflammation does not take place. I totally dissent from this opinion; for after an experience of twenty years amongst bees, in which time the number of stings which I have received is innumerable, I am as much affected by one, as at the commencement of my career. M. Lombard is however of the former opinion, for he says, that the stings which he now receives are not attended with such painful consequences as when he was first stung; and he wishes to know, if in length of time a species of inoculation of the venom of the bee does not take place which neutralizes its effects. If this visionary apiarian could verify this fact, I would place his statue in the next niche to Dr. Jenner. The nineteenth century could then boast of one important discovery, and which would excite the gratitude of all future apiarians. The sting of the bee, so formidable and appalling to the young apiarian, would then be a mere nullity, as he would only have to be inoculated with the venom, to be in future, and for ever more, rendered venom-proof.

'Swammerdam speaks of the possibility of avoiding the sting of the bee, on which an experiment is to be made. He advises to present a piece of old hat to the bee, and to cut away the point of the sting. He adds that the bee does not die, but that it is rendered incapable for ever after of stinging.

'About thirty years ago a fly, the sting of which was venomous, was very troublesome in many parts of Prussia, and a specific was published, which was not only a cure for the sting of that fly, but also for that of the bees, wasps, &c. It is as follows: Beat an onion on a hard body to extract the juice, to which add a pinch of common salt, apply the juice to the sting, and the pain and inflammation will instantly cease.'

Mr. Huish allots a chapter of considerable length to a critical review of different sorts of hives which have been proposed or adopted, concluding with a distinct account of that which his own experience and ingenuity have suggested; and which, we doubt not, may be attended with some material advantages. This portion of his work, however, will be best understood with the assistance of the plates; and, while its details would fatigue the general reader, a mere outline of its contents would prove very unsatisfactory to the professional bee-master.

Few,

Few, we presume, will be disposed to question the soundness of the author's opinions with regard to the position and arrangement of the hives. The most desirable aspect for an apiary in this country, he observes, is two points to the east; and one to the south; and the hives should be placed on single stands, at no great elevation from the ground, and in a right line: or, if they cannot be conveniently ranged in one row, they should be disposed in chequers, in order that, when the bees take their flight, their ascent may not be impeded. The warping of the board, on which the hive is to stand, should be counteracted by two strips grooved in it contrary to the grain of the wood; and the board itself should be cleaned about four times in the year, which will save the bees much toil and trouble. Every thing that can facilitate the ascent of enemies to the hives, — tall grass or plants in their immediate neighbourhood, against which the insects are apt to impinge, on their return from a fatiguing excursion, — the proximity of a large river, into which they are liable to be precipitated by high winds, or extreme weariness, — and the smoke of towns, which is pernicious to them, — should be carefully avoided.

In opposition to the commonly received notion, the author asserts that wasps devour only the honey, and not the bees. 'I am, however, convinced,' he adds, 'that the wasps have the instinct of discovering a weak hive, and the attack on it then becomes so furious, that the bees are constrained to quit it, and leave the conquerors in quiet possession of their prey.' Suffocating the wasps in their nests with sulphur is here recommended as the only effectual mode of exterminating them. — With regard to the extensive ravages committed by the wax-moths, the author's only advice is to transfer the plundered bees to another hive, and save the little that the marauders may have left. (P. 126.)

'The death-headed sphinx (*sphinx atropos*, Linn.) is a great butterfly [hawk-moth], and belongs also to the genus [family of] phalaenæ [*phalaenæ*]. It is one of the most formidable enemies of the bees, as it alarms them very much, and, in a short time, probably in the space of a single night, will rob them of a great portion of their store. This butterfly [hawk-moth] emits a sharp and plaintive sound, which with the spot on its breast\*, rudely representing a death's head, gives rise to its name. By the common people, some most superstitious ideas are attached to it. It feeds on the leaf of the potatoe, and appears in the month of September: it is confounded with the bat, on account of its size, and because it flies at the same hour. As soon as the bees per-

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\* On the upper part of the thorax. *Rev.*

ceive its approach, they are all in commotion, and retreat into their hive.

‘It now falls to my lot to notice one of the most extravagant and absurd fancies which ever entered into the head of a rational being. M. Lombard, speaking of this sphinx, says, the art which the bees employ in rendering ineffectual the attacks of this insect is so extraordinary, that the Vaubans of the present age might take their models from them: — “When they see,” continues M. Lombard, “one of these sphinxes approaching, they immediately retire to the very extremity of the hive, contracting the entrance with a mixture of wax and propolis.” They sometimes erect a double wall! then a covered way! then a secret gate! and then battlements — bastions! glacis! and counterscarp\*! And can it be credited that Huber has, in the twenty-seventh volume of the *Bibliothèque Britannique*, actually given a draft of the fortifications which the bees make on this occasion; and he closes his description with this sublime apostrophe, “How has this foresight been accorded to those creatures, which, as we believe, have not received the gift of intelligence! These observations are continual hymns of adoration addressed to the Author of all things.”

‘I would not utter an unseasonable pleasantry on a human being, on whom the hand of Heaven was heavily laid. M. Huber was blind†; some romantic and perverted vision of his servant must have created these fortifications, and they must have been reported to his credulous master with the same enthusiasm as Trim reported the attack of the enemy to my uncle Toby in his sentry-box, on the Bowling-green. The fault was not with thee, honest Huber: but that a naturalist of the present day, who has dared in an authoritative tone to question the system of others, should be himself so weak as to consider the fortifications of the bees as real, deserves to be recorded as another instance of mental imbecility being often the attendant of genius.

‘On this subject, M. Lombard farther says, “that in the month of September, 1802, my hives were almost wholly closed by the bees; but I did not know to what cause to attribute this singularity. M. Huber has informed me of the cause, and the effects of which can only be prevented in those countries where potatoes grow, by closing the hives from the commencement of September.”

‘Now I should have expected from M. Lombard that he would have mentioned the state in which he observed the fortifications of his bees, and whether any mine had been prepared to blow the death-headed sphinx to the d—I whenever he appeared

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\* In the edition of Huber just published at Paris, in two vols. 8vo. these fortifications are more minutely described.

† His translator merely says that he laboured under a defect in the organs of vision, which obliged him to employ an assistant in his experiments; and that the talents of this philosophic assistant, *Francis Beurnens*, had long been devoted to his service: thus giving double authority to his discoveries. Rev.



at their gates. This however is all omitted, and I suppose from a particular reason, which it were here superfluous to state.'

Yet, in the face of all this facetious criticism, and under the risk of incurring the imputation of *mental imbecility*, we will take leave to remark that the occurrence of *sphinx atropos* is much more frequent in many parts of the continent than in our own island; and that the bees on the other side of the water may have devised some complex and ingenious modes of obstructing its access to their stores. At all events, if the particulars be seriously and minutely detailed in the recent edition of Huber's work, the mere circumstance of their having hitherto escaped Mr. Huish's observation is insufficient to shake our belief in their existence. After having perused this author's own report of the accurately geometrical structure of their cells, we can readily ascribe to these astonishing insects the erection of a few temporary fences, which the lively imagination of French and Italian writers may have compared to the works of a fortified town. Besides, whatever may have been the imperfection of M. Huber's own powers of sight, he was surrounded by friends who were both able and willing to correct his mistakes.

Although, in one passage of the present publication, we are assured that a contagious dysentery is the only serious disorder to which bees are subject, in another we are told that they are sometimes much afflicted with yellowness of the antennæ, and with vertigo, which is supposed to be incurable.

With respect to the obscure origin of wax, Mr. Huish maintains, with much plausibility, the hypothesis which ultimately resolves it into the farina or pollen of flowers: a material which the bees seem to be capable of elaborating into either wax or propolis, as circumstances may require. In his long account of honey-dew, we are surprized to find that he has wholly overlooked the ejections of the aphides: but, perhaps, he imagined that he had amply compensated for the omission by the insertion of a copious extract from a communication by Boissier de Sauvages on an analogous sweet fluid, voided by a sort of grub, which is not very distinctly described.

The ensuing method of effecting a junction of swarms is said to be invariably attended with success: (p. 232.)

'From long and repeated observation, I am convinced that the bees do not know each other from any distinctive personal marks, but from an odour peculiar to them, and which differs in every hive. From this conviction I was led to consider, that if by any means I could impart the same odour to two different families, I could

could then unite them according to the purpose required\*. To put my design in execution, I made a mixture of sugar and ale, and a small quantity of honey. I diluted the whole with water until the quantity amounted to about four gallons. This liquid I placed in a tub, rather higher than the bee-hives which I generally use for receiving the bees when I drive them. I then take the stock-hive to which the weaker one is to be joined, and, having gained possession of the bees, I immediately immerse the whole in the liquid, and retain them there until life is almost extinct. I then drive the bees from the weaker hive, and immerse them in the same liquid with the other bees; and having well mixed them, by turning them round with a stick, I pour the whole mass into a sieve, and having drained all the liquid from them, I return them to the stock-hive; then closing the entrance, I take the hive and place it at a short distance from the fire. In a short time a humming is heard, which is the sound of returning life; in the course of an hour the bees are perfectly recovered, and I never knew that a single quarrel existed between them. This system is however not exempt from that danger which must necessarily accompany the junction of two hives; and that is, the possibility, and I may add the probability, of both the queens being killed; I therefore, if possible, contrive to catch the queen of one of the hives, and become myself a regicide.

'If the day subsequent to the hiving of the swarm be rainy, and if it should continue so for a few days, it becomes advisable to give the bees a little food. The quantity of honey which they bring with them from the parent-hive will be wholly exhausted in a short time, and should they be prevented by bad weather from collecting some food in the fields, they will in time become so weak from the want of food, that, on the return of fine weather, they will be unable to take their customary flights. The food should be always given them at night, that no fear may be entertained of robbery by the other bees. Whenever a hive is lifted, in which a swarm has been lately placed, particular care should be taken to perform it with great gentleness, because the combs, not having yet acquired a proper consistency, and being loaded with bees, are very apt to break, which causes great confusion in a hive. I would in general advise, except it be for the purpose of feeding, not to meddle with the swarms for two months. They may then be inspected without fear of incurring any risk of breaking the combs.'

Many wholesome precautions are likewise suggested for preserving the bees during winter, when humidity and famine

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\* The German apiarians are so fully convinced that it is by the particular smell that bees recognize a stranger, that they always adopt the following plan on giving a queen to a hive: they confine her in a little cage which is placed in the hive, and in which she is suffered to remain about three days. She is then set at liberty, and the bees accept of her as their monarch.'

are more to be dreaded than cold; although both may be avoided, and without much difficulty, by attending to the requisite directions.

Mr. Huish is a strenuous advocate for depriving the bees of a portion only of their stores; and considerations both of humanity and profit will, we doubt not, justify the adoption of his method. His instructions relative to feeding the bees in winter are not less judicious, or less deserving of attention. We regard, too, as an important discovery, the revival of a hive of which the tenants have perished from accident, or want. (P.299.)

‘ In every spring, and especially when it is rainy, a number of hives perish; either from want of food, from the continuation of humidity, which afflicts the bees with the dysentery more than any other circumstance, or finally by the pillage of strange bees. The combs of these hives are immediately melted, for the purpose of the wax, without any consideration for the brood contained in the cells. This brood not however having died with the bees, the ignorance of the value of it ought to be particularly eradicated from the mind of every apiarian.

‘ Whenever the bees of a hive have perished in the autumn or the spring, the hive should be immediately taken from the apiary, and deposited in a dry place, carefully protected from insects, spiders, mice, &c. When the warm weather has set in, it may be brought from its repository, and exposed to the effect of the sun. Some judgment, however, is necessary in this particular, for I once inadvertently left a hive fully exposed to the rays of a mid-day's summer's sun, and the consequence was, that when I came to examine the hive in the evening, I found all the combs detached from the sides, and in perfect confusion, having been melted by the excessive heat.

‘ A hive, thus undergoing (if I may be allowed the term) the process of resurrection, should be placed in a remote and retired spot at some distance from the apiary, and care should be taken that it is not attacked by some pillaging bees, who would in a short time bring so many of their companions, that the hive must be instantly moved, to prevent its complete destruction.

‘ I, however, never experienced that a hive thus regenerated, swarmed the same year, although Mr. Ducouedic affirms the contrary, especially if the apiary be in the vicinity of heath, and buck-wheat. I do not think, however, that its swarming ought to be promoted, for it must necessarily impoverish it much, and it cannot be supposed to be so strongly peopled as to throw a swarm worth preserving during the winter, but in itself it will form an excellent stock-hive for the ensuing season.

The temporary and periodical removal of hives, for the sake of fresh *pasturage*, (as it is termed,) is found to be attended with such beneficial consequences in China, Egypt, and in some parts of France and Italy, that the author strongly urges

urges his fellow bee-masters in this island, and especially in some districts of Scotland, to avail themselves of the practice. — The rural economist and the frugal housewife may, moreover, derive some useful lessons from a careful perusal of several of the chapters of which we have already announced the titles. — With some degree of impatience, we turned to that which treats of the extent or range of the ordinary flight of the honey-bee: but Mr. Huish leaves the point nearly as unsettled as he found it, and takes occasion to indulge in assertions which excite our distrust of his accuracy. Thus he tells us that the Bass Island (or, as he denominates it, the *Isle of Bas*,) is ‘at a much greater distance than four miles from any land;’ whereas, on consulting the statistical account of the parish of North Berwick, to which it belongs, we find that it is only “about a mile from the shore;” a reckoning which very materially alters the author’s conclusion. Again, he affects to correct the *French* and the *English* translator of Huber’s Observations, and would lead us to infer that Huber himself assigns *half a mile* as the limit of the bee’s flight; whereas, in the only English version which we have seen, the expression is *half a league*; and this, we presume, is a faithful translation of the original, because at Geneva and in the Pays de Vaud the term *mile* is scarcely known.

A much more extensive and precise account of the different species of bees than is here exhibited might have been extracted from Kirby’s Monograph, and the writings of some of the more recent entomologists.

Of the policy of increasing the national stock of honey by means of bounties, we are somewhat doubtful: but we cannot dispute that the country is capable of supporting many more apiaries than it now contains. The establishment of an Apiarian Society, therefore, and the practical patronage of our nobility and land-holders in all laudable attempts to improve and extend the culture of the bee, would probably be attended with the best effects; and we need scarcely add that, in the present times especially, it is of vital consequence to the community to turn every branch of rural economy to the best account. We trust, therefore, that Mr. Huish’s patriotic suggestions will meet with a cordial reception from the public, and induce them to overlook an occasional want of metaphysical precision; as well as of that regard to purity and correctness of composition, which no author of any pretensions to taste or discernment can violate with impunity. The subsequent instances, among others which might be quoted, will amply justify our concluding remark.

‘ The

‘The common bee, or honey-fly, (*Apis*,) is an insect of the species of the fly with four wings.’ Would not the most ordinary logician infer from such a definition that *Apis* (the generic appellation) was the trivial name, that a particular species of four-winged fly existed, and that the hive-bee is an individual of that particular species? — *Umbella* is given as the title of a class of plants; and then, as if to set every botanical idea at defiance, we are told in a note explanatory of *umbella*, that ‘the characteristic of the flower of this species is to have the form of an umbrella,’ &c. By such strange phraseology as, ‘at the bottom of its *pestules* or nectarium,’ are we to understand that the pistil and nectary are the same organ? — *Chalice* and *calices* are used by the author for the flower-cup, and even for the nectarium, but never for the *calyx*, in the technical sense of that term. — Many of his readers will, no doubt, inquire what are the *antillæ* of a bee, and what are *trochilæ*? They will not be less puzzled to extort any distinct meaning from the following short sentence, though composed of plain English words: ‘It was the honey-dew, from partaking less of the marvellous, that the persuasion of its existence was more easy, as it was scarcely ever perceived on the trees but at a time when heavy clouds appeared in the air, during the sultry weather of June or July.’ — In another place, we hear of ‘boats resembling the manner of the Egyptians.’ — We can perceive no peculiar charm in such words as *agronomical*, *consummations*, (a Gallicism, for *uses*), *fermentive*, *indefatigability*, *transversion*, *obligate*, *obligated*, *deprived*, *deprivator*, *storifying*, *storified*, &c. — Lastly, Mr. Huish appears to take an inhuman pleasure in promoting discord between noun and verb. Thus, ‘two of which — enables,’ — ‘the larvæ was,’ — ‘the rays — destroys,’ — ‘as the newness of the combs are more apt to be melted by the heat,’ &c. Here, however, the correction of the grammatical error will not afford us a particle of meaning; for what idea can we attach to *melted newness*? The intended sense no doubt is that the combs, owing to their newness, are more apt to be melted by the heat. — Several awkward collocations of the members of a sentence; and other symptoms of careless writing, might easily be pointed out: *Sed hæc hæc tænuis*.

M. Huber's work on Bees was reviewed in our liid vol. N. S. p. 245.; and his treatise on Ants in vol. lxxvii. p. 449. *Appendix*.

ART. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1815. Part II. 4to. pp. 294. 11. 2s. sewed. Nicol and Son.

### CHEMISTRY, PHYSIOLOGY, &c.

**SOME Experiments on a solid compound of Iodine and Oxygene, and on its chemical Agencies.** By Sir Humphry Davy, LL.D. F.R.S. — In two of his former papers, this active philosopher had given an account of his researches on a class of bodies consisting of iodine and oxygen, combined with different bases, analogous to the hyper-oxy muriates. He had not been able, at that time, to produce a binary compound of oxygen and iodine, either by the method proposed by Gay-Lussac or by any of his own invention: but he informs us that he has since been more fortunate; and, in the present paper, he furnishes us with a detail of the discovery and chemical properties of the new substance. Some circumstances having led him to conclude that iodine has a stronger attraction for oxygen than chlorine, and knowing likewise that iodine has an attraction for chlorine, he thought it was probable that euchlorine might be decomposed by being heated in contact with iodine; and that two compounds would be formed, one of oxygen and iodine, and the other of iodine and chlorine, or that a triple compound would be produced, from which the iodine might be easily detached. On making the experiment, the two compounds were actually formed; and, by a gentle heat, the chlorine and iodine were driven off, while the oxygen and iodine were left behind. It is described as 'a white semi-transparent solid; it has no smell, but a strong astringent sour taste. Its specific gravity is considerable, for it rapidly sinks in sulphuric acid. When heated strongly, it decomposes, undergoing fusion at the moment, and is entirely converted into gaseous matter and iodine, leaving no residuum whatever. It requires for its entire decomposition a heat which is rather below the boiling point of olive oil, and there seems to be little or no increase of temperature in the process.' Sir Humphry observes that its composition, as consisting of oxygen and iodine, is decisively proved both by synthesis and analysis. The most remarkable properties of the compound are these: — it is very soluble in water; — it slowly deliquesces in a moist atmosphere, but it remains unaltered when the air is dry; — it reddens and afterward destroys vegetable blues; — it acts powerfully on inflammable bodies, and, when heated with them, a detonation takes place; — it corrodes all the metals, even gold and platina. With the alkalies and  
alkaline

alkaline earths, it forms oxyiodes, or triple compounds of oxygen, iodine, and the substance employed:—it also appears to be capable of uniting with ammonia, so as to produce an oxyide of this substance:—but its action on acids is one of its most singular properties, since it seems to form combinations with all of them, which are not decomposed.

‘ When sulphuric acid is dropped into a concentrated solution of it in hot water, a solid substance is precipitated, which consists of the acid and the compound ; for on evaporating the solution by a gentle heat, nothing rises but water. On increasing the heat in an experiment of this kind, the solid substance formed, fused ; and on cooling the mixture, rhomboidal crystals formed of a pale yellow colour, which were very fusible, and which did not change at the heat at which the compound of oxygene and iodine decomposes, but sublimed unaltered. When urged by a much stronger heat, it partially sublimed, and partially decomposed, affording oxygene, iodine, and sulphuric acid.’

Analogous compounds were produced from the phosphoric, nitric, oxalic, muriatic, and boracic acids. The taste of these compounds is said to be very sour, they redden vegetable blues, dissolve gold and platina, and are conceived to be proper chemical compounds.—To the new substance that forms the object of this paper, the author proposes to give the name oxyiodine; and to its solution in water, that of oxyiodic acid. Whether it be more proper to apply the term acid to the anhydrous solid, or to its solution in water, is a minute point of nomenclature on which it may be difficult to decide; but we should be disposed to differ from Sir H. Davy, as far as the analogy of other similar bodies ought to guide our proceedings.

On the Action of Acids on the Salts usually called Hyper-oxymuriates, and on the Gases produced from them. By the Same. — The principal intent of this paper is to make a report of a new gaseous combination of chlorine and oxygen. It was formed by mixing together the hyper-oxymuriate of potash with sulphuric acid, and submitting the mass to a gentle heat in a retort. An elastic fluid, of a bright yellowish green colour, arose from the mixture, which was rapidly absorbed by water, but had no sensible action on mercury. The process requires to be conducted with much caution, in order to prevent the explosion to which it is liable; the hyper-oxymuriate should be added in small quantities; no combustible matter should be present; and the water should not be permitted to attain the boiling temperature. Its colour is brighter than that of chlorine; its smell is less pungent.

purgent, but more aromatic: it destroys vegetable blues without reddening them; and, when heated to about  $212^{\circ}$ , it explodes with much violence. After the explosion, two volumes of the gas are expanded to rather less than three, of which two are oxygen and the remainder is chlorine. The author observes that this substance, although it contains four proportions of oxygen, is not an acid; and he conceives 'that the acid-fluid-compound of oxygene, chlorine, and water, which M. Gay-Lussac calls chloric acid, owes its acid powers to combined hydrogen, and that it is analogous to the other hyper-oxymuriates, which are triple compounds of inflammable bases, chlorine, and oxygene, in which the base and the chlorine determine the character of the compound.' From these and other analogous facts, he concludes that acidity does not depend on any *peculiar* elementary substance, 'but on *peculiar combinations* of various substances.'

*Farther analytical Experiments relative to the Constitution of the Prussic, of the ferruretted Chyazic, and of the sulphuretted chyazic Acids; and to that of their Salts; together with the Application of the atomic Theory to the Analyses of those Bodies.* By Robert Porrett, jun. Esq.—In a memoir published in the last volume of the Transactions, Mr. Porret had shewn that the elements of the prussic acid combine with the black oxyd of iron, and thus form the ferruretted chyazic acid. This, he thinks, is the real acid-portion of what have been hitherto called the triple prussiates; and he also endeavours to prove that other substances, besides the black oxyd of iron, unite with the same acid, and that in this way sulphur produces a sulphuretted chyazic acid. In the paper now before us, the object of Mr. P. is to give some analyses of these substances, and to apply to them the atomic theory of Mr. Dalton, as well as Prof. Berzelius's additional hypothesis respecting the manner in which oxyds combine with each other. His first analysis was that of the prussiate of mercury, which he found to consist of acid 13.8, and metal 86.2 parts in the 100. He next attempted the more arduous task of analyzing the acid itself. For this purpose, he employed it in the combination with mercury which he had already examined; and he continued to make successive additions of the red oxyd of the metal, until the whole of the carbon and hydrogen were completely oxygenated, without the azote being affected. To accomplish this object, the prussiate of mercury and its peroxyd are put into a retort, and subjected gradually to heat, so as to produce the mixture and explosion of the materials, and form the result of the decomposition. The

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components



Components of the acid are stated to be carbon 34.8, azote 40.7, and hydrogen 24.5, in the 100 parts. — The experiments seem to have been performed with great care and accuracy, and afford a valuable addition to our knowledge of a very complicated substance.

*On the Nature and Combination of a newly discovered Vegetable Acid; with Observations on the Malic Acid, and Suggestions on the State in which Acids may have previously existed in Vegetables.* By M. Donovan, Esq. — Scheele had examined the berries of the *Sorbus Aucuparia*, or mountain-ash, and concluded that the acid which they contain is the malic: but Mr. Donovan, being unacquainted with this circumstance, was led to submit them to a chemical examination, and has discovered in them a new acid, to which he has given the name of sorbic. In order to obtain the acid in a state of purity, the juice of the berry is mixed with the acetate of lead; when a sorbate of lead is formed. This is washed on a filter, and, from the fluid thus obtained, crystals are produced, which are afterward mixed with sulphuric acid. The sulphate of lead is gradually deposited, and the remainder the lead is removed by being united with sulphuretted hydrogen gas, until the water at length becomes a solution of pure sorbic acid. The acid is thus described when in its state of purity:

‘ It is a transparent, colourless, and inodorous fluid, soluble in alcohol, and in any proportion of water. When evaporated, it forms an uncrystallizable solid mass which deliquesces: when subjected to distillation, the liquor which passes over shews no traces of acidity. Its acidity is such that it causes even a painful sensation on the organs of taste. It is not much altered by being kept in an uncombined state. I have had it for more than a year in a corked phial, and at the end of that time, no other change was produced than the separation of a tenuous coagulum, small in quantity, as the acid was very pure, but it is more abundant when the acid is impure. When mixed with malic acid, as in fruits, this acid is the first to disappear, while the other retains its properties long after the commencement of decay in the plant.’

Mr. D. relates a number of experiments which he performed for the purpose of accurately discriminating the sorbic acid from the malic, with which it had been confounded by Scheele; and he afterward gives a minute detail of its action on the alkalies, the earths, and the different metallic salts. He observes, respecting the general properties and relations of the newly discovered substance;

‘ I think there can be no doubt, that the sorbic acid is an acid *sui generis*, and probably intermediate between malic and oxalic.

With regard to the other acids, with which the sorbic co-exists in fruits, it is to be observed, that it is never found in mature fruits that contain any other than the malic; that the latter is never found alone in any mature fruit, but always accompanied by the sorbic, and that these two acids, when together, exclude all others. To this, however, there is an apparent exception, namely, the berry of the *Sambucus Nigra*, which (probably from the immense quantity of mucilage and colouring matter present) afforded me no sorbic acid. The fruits that contain the sorbic and malic acids together are apples, plums, berries of the sorbus, barberries, and sloes. Of these, the berries of the sorbus contain the greatest quantity of sorbic acid, unripe apples less, ripe apples and sloes still less, barberries very little, and plums least of all. The green berries of the sorbus, (perhaps,) those of the sambucus, and the plant *sempervivum tectorum*, contain no other than the malic; and, agreeing with the foregoing statements, raspberries and gooseberries, as they contain citric and malic acids, contain no sorbic whatever.

*On the Structure of the Organs of Respiration in Animals which appear to hold an intermediate Place between those of the Class Pisces and the Class Vermes; and in two Genera of the last-mentioned Class.* By Sir Everard Home, Bart. V. P. R. S. — It is here observed that the structure of animals proceeds in an uniform gradation, forming a continued series; and that by accurately ascertaining this series our systems of classification must be constructed. The respiratory organs of fish are a distinguishing feature in their economy; and the present memoir proposes to describe the organs of five animals, which serve as connecting links between the gills of fish and the lungs of some classes of the vermes. The animals which Sir Everard has examined are the lamprey, the myxine, a new genus intermediate between the lamprey and the myxine, the *aphrodita aculeata*, and the leech. In the lamprey, the organs of respiration have seven external openings on each side of the animal, leading into oval bags, which contain a membrane constructed like that of the gills of the fish. It has a thorax, much resembling that of land animals, but composed entirely of cartilage; and only one nostril, which opens into a large cavity. In an animal brought by Sir Joseph Banks from the South Seas, intermediate between the lamprey and the myxine, the respiratory organs are the same as in the former animal; except that it has no proper thorax, the air being probably received and expelled merely by the elasticity of the bags. The myxine differs from the last animal in having only two external openings and six bags on each side. The *aphrodita aculeata* has 32 openings on each side, which communicate with a cavity immediately under

under the skin and muscles of the back, separated from the abdomen by a strong cartilaginous membrane. The leech has 16 openings on each side of the belly, which lead to an equal number of spherical cells, placed between the abdominal muscles and the stomach, which perform the office of respiratory organs. — Sir Everard concludes with an account of the manner in which the function of respiration is carried on by all these different species of organs, and has illustrated his remarks by some distinct and descriptive plates.

*On the Mode of Generation of the Lamprey and Myxine.* By the Same. — The object of this paper is to prove that the lamprey is not, as it was before supposed, male and female respectively, but hermaphrodite; a position which appears to be very decisively proved by the author's observations.

*On the Multiplication of Images, and the Colours which accompany them in some Specimens of Calcareous Spar.* By David Brewster, LL.D. F.R.S. — Dr. Brewster perseveres in the prosecution of the interesting train of experiments of which we have, from time to time, given an account. Prof. Robison appears to have originally discovered that some specimens of Iceland-spar have the property of multiplying images, and exhibiting a certain set of colours. The subject was farther investigated by Mr. Brougham, and still more lately by M. Malus; and these experimentalists all concurred in ascribing the effects to fissures or fractures, within the crystal, acting in the same manner with the thin plates which in other cases produce double refraction. Dr. Brewster has, however, been induced to form a different opinion on the subject; and to regard the effects as strictly analogous to those that are produced by the action of crystals on the polarization of light. He farther informs us that he is able to communicate the property of multiplying and colouring the images to any specimen of Iceland-spar, so that the artificial cannot be distinguished from the real crystal. The fissures alone are proved not to be adequate to produce the effect: but it is found to take place if the fissures be filled with crystalline matter; and it is on the passage of the ray through this crystallized film that the multiplication and colouring depend. We are told that 'it may be shewn by various experiments that the division of a beam of light into two pencils, by double refraction, does not take place till the light has penetrated the first surface of the crystal, and suffered the ordinary refraction; while, at the second surface, the extraordinary refraction takes place before the emergence of the ray.'

The multiplication and colouring of the object do not always exist together, and therefore must depend on different circumstances; and Dr. Brewster observes that the multiplication of the images arises 'merely from the interruption in the regular structure of the mineral, and the colours on the thickness and crystalline nature of the vein by which that interruption is produced.' Colours, therefore, seem to be produced by the transmission of polarized light through a crystallized vein, and the phenomena change their character with the thickness of the vein. It follows from this view of the subject, that, although images may be multiplied without being coloured, they cannot be coloured without being multiplied, because the separation of the oppositely polarized pencils is necessary to the production of the colours. — The paper terminates with the description of some new instruments for exhibiting the complementary colours.

*An Account of some Experiments with a large Voltaic Battery.* By J. G. Children, Esq. F. R. S. — The battery on which Mr. Children performed his experiments is the largest that has ever been constructed. It consists of 20 sets of plates, 6 feet long, by 2 feet 8 inches broad, each plate containing 32 square feet of surface. The plates are arranged not in pairs, but in triple combinations; every cell containing one zinc and two copper plates, and each surface of zinc being opposed by a surface of copper: an arrangement which was suggested by Dr. Wollaston, and has been found very materially to increase the power of the apparatus. The cells of the battery, which are 21 in number, are capable of containing 945 gallons. The fluid employed was one part acid, diluted with 40 parts of water. The first set of experiments related to the comparative facility with which different metals are ignited, when placed in the electrical circuit. For this purpose, wires of dissimilar metals were employed, each connected with one end of the battery, and hooked together in the centre; the length of every wire being 8 inches, and its diameter  $\frac{1}{16}$  of an inch. The order in which the metals ignited seemed to be the inverse of their power of conducting electricity, and must therefore probably be referred to a kind of resistance which the fluid experiences in being transmitted through the wire. It does not appear that the phenomenon bears any relation to the capacity of the metals for heat, as this property has been ascertained by Craufurd and others. A curious experiment was tried on the relative conducting power of platina-wires of different thicknesses;

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In an experiment in which equal lengths of two platina wires, of unequal diameter, (the larger being  $\frac{1}{8}$ , the smaller  $\frac{1}{16}$  of an inch,) were placed together in the circuit *parallel* to each other, the thicker wire was ignited, because it conveyed more electricity without proportional increase of cooling surface. When connected continuously, the order of ignition was reversed. These two results were foreseen by Dr. Wollaston, who suggested the experiments.

When the battery was employed in a state of the greatest excitation, the fluid contained one-twentieth of a mixture of the sulphuric and nitric acids. The effects were very powerful; platina was fused; and the oxyds of tungsten, tantalum, uranium, titanium, and others of the most refractory metals, were fused or reduced. Ruby, sapphire, quartz, silex, and plumbago, were not affected; blue spinel ran into a slag; gadolinite fused into a globule; magnesia was agglutinated; and zircon was imperfectly melted. Mr. Children found that iron, in contact with which diamond had been placed, was converted into steel, while the diamond had disappeared; thus affording a decisive proof of the carbonaceous nature of this body: which, though generally admitted, was recently called in question by some respectable experimentalists.

*Some additional Experiments and Observations on the Relation which subsists between the Nervous and Sanguiferous Systems.* By A. P. Wilson Philip, M.D. — We have before had occasion to notice the interesting experiments of Dr. Philip on the connection between the nervous and the muscular systems of animals, in which he controverted the positions of Le Gallois, and established some important conclusions of his own. The paper now before us contains a continuation of his researches. One of the most curious facts that he formerly related had reference to the different effects produced on the action of the heart, by the manner in which the nervous system was destroyed. The brain may be entirely removed without affecting the circulation: but, if it be crushed, or its texture be completely destroyed, by some sudden or violent injury, the action of the heart is considerably excited. These results, which appear so contradictory, he endeavoured to explain on the hypothesis that there are three distinct systems, which he calls the sensorial, the nervous, and the muscular, not necessarily connected together, yet mutually influencing each other. — It is one of the objects of this memoir to exhibit the effects of chemical or mechanical stimuli, applied to different parts of the brain, on voluntary and involuntary motion; the motions of the latter kind being produced by their application to any part of the brain, while, for the production of the former, it was found necessary that they should be applied to that part  
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whence the nerves take their origin. Dr. P. enters into the consideration of the use of the ganglia; and, after having shewn that objections exist against the generally received doctrine, he states it to be his opinion that their sole office is to convey, to the nerves which proceed from them, the united energy of all the nerves which pass through them from the brain. He then lays down twenty-one separate propositions, which are supposed to be established by direct experiments: but our limits do not allow us to enter into more minute particulars.

*On some Phenomena of Colours, exhibited by thin Plates.* By John Knox, Esq. Physical optics is a subject which has of late years engaged the attention of several profound and ingenious philosophers; and the discoveries and experiments of Malus, Brewster, Herschel, &c. have given a totally new character to this curious and interesting branch of science. The phenomena of coloured rings were observed by Sir Isaac Newton: but his explanation and theory of them, by the supposed fits of easy transmission and reflection of the rays of light, is now generally considered as defective; and, while we must acknowledge that little or nothing more satisfactory has yet been adopted in its stead, it is probable that the newly discovered principle of the polarity of light may ultimately lead to a complete and final solution of this problem, after farther experiments have placed the investigator in possession of all the phenomena connected with the inquiry. A theory founded on partial experiments is very frequently erroneous: though it may meet, perhaps, all the conditions of the question as far as observations have been carried, yet new facts, arising out of new experiments, present other difficulties not before considered, which the former hypothesis is insufficient to explain; and it therefore becomes necessary, in order to embrace these new facts, to give a farther extension to the former theory, or even to remodel it and rest its foundation on other principles.

Optical phenomena are perhaps the most numerous of all, the most difficult to be observed with accuracy, and the least tangible in the hands of an investigator: they vanish from his touch with the same facility with which the lights and shades themselves disappear from under the eye of the observer; so that the physical optician may frequently exclaim with Macbeth,

“ I have thee not, and yet I see thee still.”

In the present set of experiments, we have numerous phenomena with which neither Newton nor any other philosopher who has followed in the same line was acquainted; and many of

**Captain Mead.** These, together with other cases collected from recent observations, form the data from which the author draws his conclusions. Within our limits we can give only an abstract of his first three cases: though we should have been glad to have followed the detail of facts more at large, because the utility of them depends in a great measure on their publicity; and the volumes of the Philosophical Transactions are not generally consulted by that class of men to which these facts are of the greatest importance.

‘ In pursuing the detail of these facts and observations, I shall begin, in the neighbourhood of Cape Finistetre, and proceed with the course of the current, along the Bay of Biscay; and thence, across the mouth of the British Channel, to Scilly, and the entrance of St. George’s Channel.

‘ The three first facts regard the current from the open sea, setting into the south side of the Bay of Biscay, and along the north coast of Spain; which current has been supposed, in the former paper, to be occasioned by the prevalent westerly winds; which force the water near the shore, *into the Bay*, and along the southern coast of it. The water so displaced would be followed of course by the adjacent water *behind it*, in the open sea; and so on, successively, to a certain extent. This cause, and not the effect of the *Gulf Stream*, extended to the coasts of Europe, as some have supposed, must surely be referred to, as the origin of the Scilly current.

‘ I. The first case is that of the Earl Cornwallis, East India ship. The circumstance occurred on her outward passage: she was well provided with time-keepers, as most of the India ships are.

‘ On the 12th March, 1791, between the parallels of  $43^{\circ}$  and  $44^{\circ}$ ; and at  $3^{\circ} 45'$  of longitude, west of Cape Finistierre, (about 53 leagues,) this ship experienced an easterly current equal to 26 marine miles. Her position being directly opposite to the line of the southern coast of the Bay of Biscay, it is a fair conclusion, that the current was occasioned by the cause above mentioned; or as seamen call it the *indraught* of the Bay; which, it appears, extends to, at least, 53 leagues from the shore. And as the rate, in this place, exceeds one mile per hour, it may be supposed that the effect extends to a still greater distance.

‘ It may here be remarked, that the same ship, in coming out of the *Chops* of the Channel, a few days before, was *set* twenty-four miles to the westward, 15 to the northward, in the course of the 24 hours: that is 28 miles, in a direction of N. W. by W. This may be supposed to be the same stream of current, in its course from the *Bay* towards *Scilly*.

‘ II. The second fact is that of the *drift of a bottle*, which was thrown out of a Danish ship, (I believe, sent on discovery) since the publication of the former paper.

‘ The bottle was thrown out, in lat.  $44\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , lon.  $12^{\circ}$  west from Greenwich: that is, about 48 miles to the N. E. of the Cornwallis’s station, at the time that she began to feel the current, on the

the 11th March. It was taken up by a centinel on duty, near Cape Ortegal; and, as was supposed, at the moment of its driving into the surf. If this was really the fact, the bottle, according to the date of the letter contained in it, must have been carried, at the rate of half a mile per hour, in the direction of about E. by S.  $\frac{1}{2}$  S.; the distance was about 64 leagues.

‘The report of this circumstance was transmitted by the French consul at Corunna to the Academy of Sciences at Paris.

‘It may be observed, that the drift of the bottle was much to the south of east; whereas, that of the Cornwallis was east: that is, both pointed towards Cape Ortegal, or its vicinity; as if the main stream of the current was concentrated there.

‘With respect to the velocity of the current, in the present case, all, of course, depends on the time of the arrival of the bottle at the shore. It might have been thrown up long before it was seen, and washed off again, by the tide, or surge of the sea. The direction, the most important point, cannot be questioned.

‘III. The third fact is very simple, and perfectly conclusive. Off Cape Ortegal, at a considerable offing, Admiral Knight found the current, at the rate of one mile per hour, setting to the E. S. E.; that is, nearly *along-shore*.

‘The reader will immediately perceive that these three facts converge, as it were, to one point: that is, in the proof, that the waters of the Atlantic flow into the Bay of Biscay, along the north coast of Spain.’

#### ASTRONOMY and MATHEMATICS.

*A Series of Observations of the Satellites of the Georgian Planet, including a Passage through the Node of their Orbits; with an introductory Account of the Telescopic Apparatus that has been used on this Occasion; and a final Exposition of some calculated Particulars deduced from the Observations.* By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S. — Astronomy is highly indebted to the indefatigable zeal and unceasing labours of this veteran philosopher. His discovery of the Georgian planet, or, as it is called by foreigners, the Uranus, will form an important epoch in the history of this science; — since that time, four other new planets have been observed; — and six satellites may now, we presume, be added to the other permanent bodies of our system, the knowledge of which, as well as of their primary bodies, we owe to Dr. Herschel; who has the glory of having, as it were, created nearly half our solar system.

The series of observations here presented to astronomers is very numerous, occupying about fifty quarto pages: which we must in course pass, without attempting to abstract or select any of them for critical remarks; since it is only in their entire state that they become useful, or their value can be properly appreciated. Some of the author's deductions  
and



and computations resulting from them, however, may be presented in a more isolated state; and to these we shall confine ourselves.

The first article, after the detail of the observations, relates to the determination of the place of the ascending node, the inclination of the orbits, and the retrograde motions of the satellites. The place of the ascending node of the satellite's orbits Dr. Herschel supposes to be 5 signs, 15 degrees, 30 minutes; and the inclination of the orbits to the ecliptic,  $78^{\circ} 58'$ . — He next treats of the principles by which the periodic revolution of the satellites may be obtained from the observed angles of position; and, ultimately, he finds that the first satellite performs its revolution in 8 d. 16 h. 56 m.  $5''.2$ , and the second in 13 d. 11 h.  $8' 59''$ . The periodic times of the other satellites are not determined.

After the above deductions, Dr. H. explains what he denominates the *identifying method*; which he, was under the necessity of employing in consequence of the minuteness of the objects, and the danger of confounding one satellite with another, or with small stars seen about the planet. It is to this that the numbers relate in the following conclusions, which the Doctor thinks he may confidently draw from his preceding observations, and the identifying method:

I. With the light of my 20 feet telescope, the first satellite generally becomes invisible at the distance of a little more than half its greatest elongation; I suppose it to be when the identified measure of it is from 302 to about 310.

II. The second satellite becomes invisible at very nearly half the distance of its greatest elongation; I suppose it to be when its identified distance is from 295 to about 305.

III. An interior satellite, as large as the first, must be more than half the greatest elongation of the first satellite from the planet; and if it be smaller, it must be at so much greater a distance from the planet, to be seen at its greatest elongation. Nor can there be any chance for seeing it two nights together, when the orbits are contracted by projection.

IV. Exterior satellites, that are very faint when at their greatest elongation, can hardly ever be seen at any other time when the orbits are contracted.

V. The first satellite is probably larger than the second; for though the latter is generally the brightest, it seems to be only in consequence of its being farthest from the planet. On comparing the limit of its disappearance with the number 302, expressing that at which the first satellite generally ceases to be visible, we find that the second satellite, upon its own scale, should not be lost in the light of the planet till it came within the limit of 224, instead of 295.

VI. Both the satellites are subject to great variations of light, not owing to the changeable clearness of the air at different times; for

far by comparing the brightness of one satellite with that of the other when they are seen together, the state of the air will be of equal clearness to both, and yet their comparative brightness has been observed to be very different: for instance, March 14. 1793, the first satellite was brighter than the second, when the distance of the former was to that of the latter as 172 to 235; and Feb. 26. 1798, the first was small, and the second larger when the distance of the former was to that of the latter as 175 to 210.

VII. The variable brightness of the satellites may be owing to a rotation upon their axes, whereby they alternately present different parts of their surfaces to our view. These variations may also arise from their having atmospheres that occasionally hide or expose the dark surface of their bodies, as is the case with the Sun, Jupiter, and Saturn.

The existence of the two satellites, to which the preceding conclusions principally apply, was proved by Dr. Herschel in a paper in the Philosophical Transactions for 1798; at which time he advanced some remarks relative to additional satellites that were distinguished under the four heads of *interior*, *intermediate*, *exterior*, and *more distant* satellites. As many additions are contained in the foregoing detail of observations, he now undertakes to review the former remarks, with the assistance of the light which he has derived from his identifying method. Afterward, in the same order, he considers, in each class, what evidence of the existence of such satellites may be derived from the additional observations; especially from those that were made in the year 1798, when the orbits of the satellites were contracted into a line which might be examined with greater facility than a more expanded space; and where even the very situation of a star, in this given direction, rather than in the numberless others in which it might be placed, must be a presumption of its being a satellite, provided that its distance at the same time should not exceed a certain probable limit. — The result of this examination, although it does not lead to an absolute demonstration of the existence of such additional satellites, can leave little doubt on the mind in this respect; and we may therefore hope that future observations and computations will lead to a determination of their periodic revolutions.

*On the dispersive Power of the Atmosphere, and its Effect on Astronomical Observations.* By S. Lee, Clerk and Librarian to the Royal Society. — A disagreement has been long known to exist between the latitude of a place as deduced from observations on the circumpolar stars, and that which is drawn from observations of the sun during the solstices; which difference, Mr. Lee thinks, may probably arise from the various coloured glasses through which the sun

sun and stars are observed: the dark glass used in the former case producing a different degree of refrangibility from the white glass through which we view the stars. The same principles, he thinks also, will shew that the dispersive power of the atmosphere may be the cause that Aldebaran and the red stars are sometimes seen projected on the moon's disk in occultations by that planet; especially when the immersion or emersion happens to be near her upper limb; because the light of the moon, being white, is more refracted than that of the star, and consequently her limb is more elevated, which would occasion the star to appear within her disk a few seconds before or after contact.

On the same ingenious hypothesis, Mr. Lee accounts for other phænomena; such as relate, for example, to the disagreement which is known to subsist in the declination of several of the fixed stars as given by various observers;—and he suggests whether the different colours of Venus, Jupiter, and Saturn, may not account for the known fact that the latter planet, though the least brilliant, will bear magnifying better than the two former. Without offering any decided opinion on this subject, we must say that the hypothesis is extremely simple and ingenious, and well deserves the attention of practical observers. Indeed, we have little doubt that the hint thrown out by Mr. Lee will be pursued till the correctness or fallacy of it shall be established; because, in the present state of astronomy, the slightest errors are of great importance, in consequence of the precision of the instruments and the confidence which we now generally place in our observations. In former times, such trifling inaccuracies would have been of no moment, because the instruments were not delicate enough to appreciate them: but, as we approach towards perfection on the one hand, a corresponding accuracy is required on the other; and hence the numerous corrections at present attending delicate astronomical observations.

Mr. Lee remarks that

‘ The different refrangibility of the differently coloured rays is very visible in stars near the horizon. If viewed on a fine night with a power of 200 and upwards, they appear expanded into a prismatic spectrum. Sirius, when within a few degrees of the horizon, presents a most beautiful object.

‘ Having remarked the very oblong figure which the spectrum assumes when near the horizon, and found from repeated observations of different stars that the separation of light begins to be visible as high as  $40^{\circ}$  or  $50^{\circ}$  of altitude, I was led to believe that the dispersive power of the atmosphere must be sufficient, in many cases, to produce considerable effect on astronomical observations; and, consequently, to suppose that it would be desirable  
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to ascertain, if possible, the exact degree of separation of the several rays.'

With this view, the author began a series of observations, the result of which forms the subject of the present paper; and which, we think, tend to confirm his hypothesis: but he remarks, in conclusion, that it is in vain for him to pursue the subject farther, in a situation so ill adapted to astronomical observation as Somerset House; and he therefore resigns the task to those who are more favourably placed in that respect, and who possess instruments better calculated for an investigation which requires so much accuracy. — We hope that this appeal will not be made in vain.

*Determination of the North Polar Distances and proper Motion of thirty fixed Stars.* By John Pond, Esq. Astronomer Royal, F.R.S.—This communication consists of three tables; the first bearing for title 'Standard Catalogue of the North Polar Distances of thirty principal fixed Stars reduced to the beginning of 1813.' The second contains 'Observations made with the Mural Circle, compared with the Observations of Dr. Bradley in the Year 1756,' from which the author draws the following results relative to the proper motion of *Polaris*:

* The N. P. D. of <i>Polaris</i> determined by upwards of 200 observations of Dr. Bradley, by computations made under the direction of Dr. Maskelyne, a short time before his death, and reduced to the beginning of the year				1749	2° 2' 17".25
By my observations for				1813	1 41 21.75
Variation in				64 years	20 55.50
Precession for				64 years	20 51.83
Difference					3.67
Annual proper motion					—0.0 57

'i.e. The annual precession, which is itself negative, must be increased by the above quantity.'

The third and last table contains the 'North Polar Distances of 44 principal Stars for January 1. 1813.'

*An Essay towards the Calculus of Functions.* By C. Babbage, Esq.—The term function, as Mr. Babbage observes, has long been introduced into analysis, and, in its most extended signification, denotes the result of every operation that can be performed on quantity. In this sense, it has been employed to great advantage by modern analysts: but no one has yet been enterprising enough to attempt what the present author designates by the term *calculus of functions*; the intention of which is clearly explained in the following paragraphs:

REV. MAY, 1816.

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Many of the calculations with which we are familiar consist of two parts, a direct, and an inverse; thus, when we consider an exponent of a quantity: to raise any number to a given power, is the direct operation: to extract a given root of any number, is the inverse method. The differential calculus, which is a direct method, naturally gave rise to the integral, which is its inverse: the same remark is applicable to finite differences. In all these cases the inverse method is by far the most difficult, and it might perhaps be added, the most useful.

It is this inverse method with respect to functions, which I at present propose to consider.

If an unknown quantity, as  $x$ , be given by means of an equation, it becomes a question how to determine its value; similarly if an unknown function, as  $\psi$ , be given by means of any functional equation, it is required to assign its form. In the first case, it is quantity which is to be determined; in the second, it is the form assumed by quantity, that becomes the subject of investigation. In the one case, the various powers of the unknown quantity enter into the equation; in the other, the different orders of the function are concerned.

Our readers will comprehend at once the nature of the problem which this gentleman proposes to himself; and, if they be acquainted with the higher analytical pursuits, they will also be enabled to appreciate its extent and difficulty, as well as the many useful purposes which it might be made to answer, if such a calculus could be fairly established: which, however, we should not consider it to be, if it merely depended on an artificial notation; although it might enable the operator to exhibit a solution to the eye, of which no one could form any mental conception, or submit to any known mode of computation. In making this remark, we by no means intend to insinuate that any of this false glare is observable in the present paper; it is, on the contrary, perhaps, as far as the author has carried it, in the simplest form that the subject will admit: but a regret seems to be expressed that the notation is not more general; and this, we apprehend, may be followed by some attempt calculated to produce that kind of artificial and unmeaning solution to which we have referred, and against which we should wish him to guard.

It is difficult, within the limits of a few pages, to furnish the reader with an intelligible idea of the nature of the notation and the mode of operation which Mr. Babbage has adopted in this first essay: yet we are unwilling not to avail ourselves of an opportunity of giving some publicity to the investigations; and we must therefore confine ourselves to the simplest cases of both.

We may observe that  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , &c. are known functional characteristics;  $\psi$ ,  $\chi$ , &c. are unknown.

It

' If in any function as  $\downarrow x$ , instead of  $x$ , the original function be substituted, it becomes  $\downarrow \downarrow x$  or  $\downarrow^2 x$ ; this is called the second function of  $x$ . If the process be repeated, the result is  $\downarrow^3 \downarrow x$  or  $\downarrow^4 x$ , the third function of  $x$ ; and similarly  $\downarrow^n x$  denotes the  $n^{\text{th}}$  function of  $x$ . Suppose

$$\downarrow x = a + x$$

then  $\downarrow^2 x = a + a + x = 2a + x$

and generally  $\downarrow^n x = na + x$

' A functional equation is said to be of the first order, when it contains only the first function of the unknown quantity; as, for instance,

$$\downarrow ax + x \downarrow x - x^2 = 0$$

$$\left( \downarrow x + \downarrow \frac{1}{x} \right)^n - ax + x^2 = a.$$

If the second function enter, the equation rises to the second order: thus,

$$\downarrow^2 x = x$$

$$\downarrow (x + \downarrow x) + (\downarrow x - x)^2 = 0,$$

are equations of the second order.

Having thus established his notation, the author proceeds to solve certain problems connected with his inquiry; of which we select the sixth as the easiest to comprehend without the entire essay; viz. to find  $\phi x$  from the equations

$$\phi x = \phi ax = \phi \beta x = \phi \gamma x = \&c. :$$

that is, to find a function of  $x$ , such that, if instead of  $x$  we successively substitute  $ax$ ,  $\beta x$ ,  $\gamma x$ , &c. the results shall be all equal to the original functions. We must dispense with the general solution: but some of the author's partial cases will be readily understood. Thus he proposes to determine the function which shall not change, when for  $x$  we substitute  $x$ ,  $-x$ , or

$\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2-1}}$ ; and he finds the general solution to be  $\phi \left\{ \frac{x^2}{x^2-1} \right\}$  in the same manner, it may be found that the function  $\phi \left\{ \frac{1-ax^2+x^4}{1+ax^2+x^4} \right\}$  will remain the same, whether the variable be  $x$ ,  $-x$ , or  $\frac{1}{x}$ .

Some idea, though an imperfect one, may be formed from what we have now stated, of the nature of the author's investigations; which, in all their generality, involve many important considerations, and are indicative of an enterprising mind. Should Mr. Babbage ultimately succeed, his name will undoubtedly stand in the first rank of modern analysts, and we sincerely wish him every possible success.

ART. VII. *Glen-Albin*; a National Tale. 4 Vols. 12mo.  
 1l. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

**T**His novel has obtained a degree of reputation that is by no means inconsiderable, and it is not unworthy of some distinction. A delineation of Scottish manners, whether Highland or Lowland, has indeed lost some of its claims to novelty: but still, as far as fictitious tale-writing is concerned, we can scarcely even now name a path of literature which is so little beaten, in which so little comparatively has been described, and so much in consequence is new to be exhibited. The present tale has the common fault of most modern novels; viz. needless expansion; by which much of the interest evaporates, and the attention to characters, in the discriminations of which this writer displays considerable acuteness, becomes distracted, and nearly lost. We are always, however, happy to meet with a well-imagined story, and a well-written tale: it forms the innocent and pleasing amusement of many fire-sides; and, if it really deserves those appellations, its moral advantages, with the young at least, are not limited to the mere innocent employment of reading, which may detain the mind from lower or worse occupation: but it may prove the foster-mother to many good and honourable feelings, in the same manner as the sickly and meretricious sentiments of much modern trash may produce results altogether the contrary. The language, in which the story before us is conveyed, is for the most part lively and unaffected; and, without laying much claim to any of the higher praises of composition, which indeed the nature of the subject renders scarcely possible, it may be said to have the requisites of natural and easy narration.

Having given this brief opinion of these volumes, we will present our readers with a short abridgement of the tale which they convey.

The commencement of the action is placed about the year 1780; and the opening scene is the hamlet of Glen-Albin, a secluded vale in the western Highlands of Scotland. An inhabitant of this remote spot, by name Ronald, who united the profession of a blacksmith with many pastoral occupations, was returning from a neighbouring cattle-fair, on a stormy November night, when he overtook on his road a lonely young female, apparently in much distress, who inquired the distance to the nearest hamlet. Ronald would willingly have relieved her on the way with a share of his own saddle, but was repulsed with a peremptory refusal. The Highlander's softer feelings overcame his anger; and, when he had gone on to some distance,

land, he returned with a sledge to assist the stranger, who had appeared very faint and weak. He succeeded in his purpose; she was accommodated with all that his cottage could afford; and, almost immediately on her arrival, she was delivered of a male child, an event which was quickly followed by her own decease, before any account could be procured of her name or situation. This child, as may be supposed, is the hero of the tale. — The highland village, in which he was brought up, formed as it were only one extensive family. Among the more prominent characters introduced is the Lady Augusta, residing in a small island called Eleenalin in the same glen, the last of a noble stock who had been the lairds of the glen, but, in combating for the house of Stuart, had lost their inheritance, and perished either in war or in foreign countries. The castle of Dunalbin and the village had passed into other hands; but, as the former was unoccupied by its proprietor, the lady, who lived in a dignified retirement, retained every privilege over the now diminished clan; except those which are derived from wealth. An aged seotress, known by the appellation of Old Moome, (or the Old Nanas,) rich in legendary stories, superstitious charms, interpretations of visions, and all the appendages of old-woman wisdom, was the person of the next consequence; and the next conspicuous figure was Hugh, the old family piper, a kind-hearted male gossip, active in every man's service but his own, and warmly attached to the honour and customs of his country. It somewhat surprised these villagers that the Lady Augusta, after having inspected a picture and a few other trifles that were found on the deceased stranger, ordered her to be buried at Eleenalin among the bones of her own ancestors, and gave the boy the name of Norman, which had been that of her own twin-brother, who had perished by a most tragical catastrophe.

The boy, however, continued to live for many years in the family of Ronald: but his education was not neglected. When the love of Moome and of the piper was exhausted, he was placed under a neighbouring pedagogue, famed for his school-learning; and in all the more elegant accomplishments he was instructed by Lady Augusta herself, who took uncommon interest in his welfare, and delight in his society. He had nearly attained the age of manhood, when the proprietor of the district became desirous of raising the returns of his estates, and leased them out in large sheep-farms. The necessary consequences of this measure was the entire depopulation of the hamlet and glen, the inhabitants of which had supported themselves by produce of small portions of land attached to their cottages. Emigration ensued; and of the former in-

habitants



inhabitants few remained besides the Lady Augusta, Norman, (who was made an inmate at her cottage,) old Moome, the piper, and an interesting girl called Flora, the daughter of the neighbouring school-master. The castle of Dunalbin had, as we have observed, long remained untenanted: but, shortly after this emigration, it became the residence of Mr. Montague, a vulgar retired pin-maker, and a bachelor more than fifty years old; whose arrival would probably have had little influence on this story but for a beautiful female companion, the widow of a deceased brother, about 19 years of age. This young woman had been an orphan under the care of the deceased Mr. Montague, who had brought her up from childhood, and rather unaccountably proposed marriage to her, while on his death-bed; to which she appears to have assented on the score of gratitude. He survived this union only a few hours; leaving his wife merely a small independence, as it appeared, and expectations from his bachelor-brother, but in reality endowed with much greater wealth, of which she was to remain uninformed till she attained the age of twenty-two.

A romantic incident soon effects an acquaintance between Norman and Mrs. Montague, who is at the same time courted by Sir Archibald Gordon, residing during the summer-months in a neighbouring castle, and the new proprietor of the estate of Glen-Albin. Mrs. Montague grows intimate with Lady Augusta, and flies to her society from the importunities of Sir Archibald, the manœuvring of his Aunt, and the vulgarity of her own brother-in-law, who is anxious to aggrandise his family by this match. — Norman becomes the unconscious and unacknowledged rival of the baronet, who attempts to procure his absence by the offer of a commission in the army; but Lady Augusta refuses this profferment for her protégé; and Mr. Macalbin, as he is now termed, evidently advances in the favour of the beautiful widow.

Mrs. Montague shortly afterward leaves the Highlands, on a visit to Lord Glenville, a relation on her mother's side, and enters into the gay scenes of the metropolis. In the mean time, Lady Augusta experiences some severe pecuniary embarrassments from the failure of the concerns in which she had vested her small property; and hence it is necessary that Norman should in some manner provide for himself. His patience having made applications for him to former friends, but received no answer, Norman at length determined to follow the army as a volunteer; with which view he crossed over into Ireland, and joined a regiment in the south of that kingdom. When his unfriended state was discovered, he

was subjected to many indignities, and treated as a common soldier: much of which oppression was owing to Sir A. Gordon, who by ill fortune joined this regiment, in which he was a Lieut. Colonel soon after our hero's arrival. The benevolent actions of the volunteer, and the imperative and frequently brutal conduct of the baronet, bring the two into perpetual collision: Norman's imprisonment is at last the consequence; and, while in this situation, he learns that Mrs. Montague has arrived with Lady Glanville in Dublin, where her match with his enemy was a common topic of conversation.

In the mean time, poor Norman's affectionate friends at Elocnalin had heard of his melancholy situation, and Hugh the piper determined to sally forth in quest of his young master; and, having accomplished a junction with him, the affection of Hugh, and the ready wit of an Irishman named Leary, in some measure sooth the disconsolate prisoner. His confinement, however, was not of long duration; and his innocence was so clearly vindicated, when a court-martial was held to investigate his conduct, that his superiors became attached to him on account of the unmerited treatment which he had received. Previously to his imprisonment, he had seen Mrs. Montague, or Monimia, (by which name we shall now mention her,) at a review; a transient recognition had taken place with her; and a much stronger one with Luath, a wolf-dog of a rare kind, which Norman had bred in the Highlands, and which Sir Archibald had purloined there. Hugh the piper, who had been entrusted with some presents for Monimia by old Moome, was admitted to an interview, and very warmly received; and the developement of this part of the plot is now rapid. Monimia discovers the treachery of Lady Gordon, the aunt of Sir Archibald, by which the letters from Lady Augusta had been withholden from her; and, finding how far reports had been circulated of her future connection with the baronet, she assumes a manner towards him which at once defeats his expectations. An accidental moon-light meeting with Norman produces a declaration of attachment on both sides; and a General in command at this spot, who had been Monimia's assistant in unraveling some of the schemes against her happiness, procures for him a situation as tutor to two young men who are about to enter into the army: which enables him to appear with the appurtenances of a gentleman. Much, however, remains to be done; and in no pursuit is he more anxiously engaged than in ascertaining his claim to gentility by birth. He first obtains the clue from some connections of Leary, who had been domestics in his mother's family: but

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the individuals were gone, and all that he could gather from tradition was that his mother was an Irish gentlewoman, who had married abroad. Old Hugh, who had always anticipated that Norman would one day prove a true Macalbin, was much hurt at this foreign genealogy: but events afterward justified the truth of his predictions. Several scraps of paper belonging to his mother had been discovered, probably in his father's writing, containing references on some subjects to persons abroad; many of whom, it was found, no longer existed, but they were mostly foreigners, and some were presumed to be at that time living in the peninsula.

Motives such as these, combined with his feelings as a soldier, at the period of the late French usurpation in Spain, prompted Norman to seek fame and fortune in that quarter. While in this situation, fortune deals out to him more blanks than prizes; and he is not only a party in the disastrous retreat of Sir J. Moore, but a wanderer over the face of the peninsula, after the battle of Corunna, with the piper and Luath as his only companions. His early friend Flora had married a Scotch officer, who was engaged in this expedition; in the retreat, it had been found necessary to leave her under the care of a Spanish family at a town in the route; the family had removed from the scene of horror; the husband of Flora was presumed to have fallen in battle; and Norman in consequence considered himself as her natural guardian, and undertook an expedition in quest of her that is scarcely equalled in the annals of knight-errantry. As a reward, the meeting with Flora leads eventually to more important discoveries. After many vicissitudes to Norman and his party, while trying to effect their escape from Spain, now captured by the French, now retaken by the Guerrillas, accident conducts them to a spot where the mystery attending Norman's parentage is at length satisfactorily unfolded. We cannot, however, detail the means by which the novelist's *requiem*, as Aristotle doubtless would have called it, had he been a novel-reader, is accomplished. Let it be sufficient to state that our hero is found to be the grandson of Lady Augusta Macalbin, who had in her youth been married to a young French cavalier, heir to noble titles in Spain as well as France. The marriage had been secret; and the family of the cavalier, on the discovery of it, incensed at what they considered a dishonour to their blood, produced by arbitrary means the separation of the wife and husband; not, however, before one son had been born, the fruit of this luckless union. The husband did not long survive this separation; and despotic power consigned his widow to her distant home, with the belief that her only child had followed its father

father to the grave. This son, grown up to man's estate, made (like his father) what is termed a love-match with Geraldine Fitzconnal, the daughter of an Irish officer; and from this union had sprung Norman, the true and lineal heir of the Macalbins, as well as of sundry more sonorous titles on the sides of the Pyrenees. The situation of Geraldine, then a Spanish Countess, when discovered by Ronald, the Glen-Albin smith, remains to be explained, but this is not done very satisfactorily. The *Condé de Chastillon*, which was the name of this Spanish grandee, had been discovered in some political intrigues: it was expedient that he should for a time abandon his country, and his wife was to follow him; but the necessity of concealment, and other accidents, prevented their meeting on board the ship appointed. Destitute of all resource, Geraldine looked to the northern home of her husband's mother as the only resting place that now remained to her; and, on the last day of that toilsome journey, she was discovered, as we have before seen, in the pains of child-birth on a Scotch moor.

At the time when Norman recognized his father, most of his property had been alienated to procure means of supporting the cause of the expatriated Spanish monarch, and his death shortly followed the recognition. A combination of circumstances now rendered Scotland the home which prudence and honour, as well as nature, dictated to our hero; and his return, with that of the piper and Flora to their native glen, is so feelingly described, and with such good attention to character, that we shall indulge in this one quotation. It will also lead our readers to supply, without our detail, all that is wanting to the completion of the story:

' The heart of Norman beat quicker as they entered the glen; and at the side of the lake he paused, hardly able to proceed. Hugh took the liberty to unmoor Montague's skiff, and, rowing down the lake, shot into the bay of Lochuan. "It must be a dark night I could not find you out," said he, addressing the bay. A light suddenly streamed from the cottage, and Norman involuntarily touched Hugh's arm. — "Yes, dear," said the Piper, in a faltering voice, "Let us go on, in God's name, — what should we fear?" They went round into the garden. Norman stepped over the Lilliputian paling, and, peeping through a fortunate opening of the window curtain, the loved group instantly broke upon his swimming sight! Giddy with overpowering joy, he leaned against the casement. Bruan set up a tremendous barking, which was instantly exchanged for yelping gladness; and up rose Moome, exclaiming, "Macalbin's come home!" — and down fell her spindle. Mary, and persons somewhat older than Mary, intent on every noise, likewise sprung up: — the wanderer entered, — the trembling frame of Monimia was sustained by his embrace; Mary

Mary kissed the boots which she clasped; and Moome curtsied, and curtsied, and blessed herself, and all around. "My Minimia!" was the low whisper of Norman, as for an instant he leaned his face over the head that rested on his bosom. She drew herself, with a long relieving sigh, from his arms; and, while he silently saluted the Lady, hung back, and looked on him. How changed, but still how dear! He appeared much taller since he had gone abroad; every proportion was fuller and more perfectly developed. The bloom of youth was displaced by the tints of a military life; and the open smile and bright wandering glance of those irrecoverable days when thought and speech are identified, were banished by the lofty port of manhood. He looked like one who had already buffeted with fortune, and who was firmly advancing on that path which, to man, is ever surrounded with peril or difficulty. A single glance enabled Monimia to perceive this change. She had the tastes as well as the virtues and the charms of her sex; and when the Lady placed her passive hand in Norman's, there was pride as well as pleasure in the glow that mantled her maiden cheek.

All this while was Moome with "spectacles on nose," muttering blessings. At length the stranger turned to pay his respects to his venerable friend. — The Chief of the Clan! the beloved of her heart! "But don't think, darling, that I can love you better than you are Macalbin. — Lady, witness for me; yet, if the living image of Donald Dunalbin were to walk this earth, there he is before me now, — there is his face, and a blessing in it, — and all but the tartans!" The ladies next inquired for Hugh; and Norman, perceiving that he had modestly hung back, led him in. "My poor, faithful piper," said the lady, "who has ever been more a brother than a servant to me!" and she kindly shook his hand; "you are most welcome to Eleenalín." "Now, God bless you, Lady, and don't say it," sobbed Hugh, "since I have lived to see this day and this night, it is more than ever the likes of me deserved from God or Macalbin. — Unah Bruachrua, I am come to lay your feet in the grave yet." And he turned jocosely to Moome, with whom he retired, "to be made much of," and to relate and hear many a long story; particularly how Moome knew they were just at hand, as all the last night, which was very windy, she had heard the splash of Macalbin's oars on the lake.

Such is the outline of this tale, as far as it regards the hero personally: but minor plots and subsidiary stories occupy no small portion of the volumes. The Highland characters are drawn with a masterly hand, more especially that of the piper; and, although some native characters in "*Waverley*" may be more striking in particular points of view, probably no one is sustained throughout with more felicity than that of Hugh in the present work. Leary, the Irishman, is also described with considerable humour, but not with the same

strict

staid attention to propriety. He may entertain, but is too farcical to excite solid interest. — The author has formed rather strong opinions in his own breast on many of those subjects which have agitated the public mind for these last thirty years, and these opinions will be found embodied in the language of many of his characters. Under this veil, he has attempted, and not without skill, to enforce many of his own sentiments; and, if some of these are rather more warm than considerate, yet, as they are invariably the expressions of a generous feeling, and are made to flow very naturally from the persons who display them, we should be unwilling to exercise any critical jurisdiction to their prejudice. When a novel is rendered the vehicle of unsound morality, or of principles which tend to the subversion of constituted society, it should be pursued with strong reprobation: but, if it exhibits only a sanguine temperament in the writer, and an honest indignation at what he conceives to be morally and therefore politically wrong, we have only to recommend the reader to draw his own inferences; firmly persuaded that the principles themselves which are exhibited are pure and honourable. — Several pieces of poetry are interspersed with the story, which are sometimes introduced rather awkwardly, but have considerable merit.

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ART. VIII. *The Latin and Italian Poems of Milton, translated into English Verse*, by Jacob George Strutt. Cr. 8vo. Boards. Longman and Co.

**W** E felt ourselves obliged to pass an unfavourable sentence on Mr. Strutt's attempt to versify a portion of Claudian, in our Number for August, 1815. Vol. lxxvii. p. 372.; and the present volume lends additional confirmation to the propriety of our advice on that occasion; namely, that Mr. Strutt would desist from his courtship of the Muses. Indeed, we are convinced that Mr. Roger Solmes himself had not a less enviable chance of engaging the affections of Miss Clariſſa Harlowe, than Mr. Strutt has of exciting a tender interest in the bosom of any one of the nine ladies in question. Yet he is evidently of a different opinion; as the following passage will indicate with respect to his theoretical sentiments, as much as the whole volume proves his practical bias on the subject:

\* Unknown to any of the favoured sons of Fortune or Apollo, yet not altogether unaided by the Muse, whose nightly visitations he acknowledges, the author entered upon his task, arduous and presumptuous as it may be deemed, with alacrity and hope; and  
through

through various fortune, and interrupting employments, pursued it with that resolution and fixedness of mind, which lead to a well-founded expectation of receiving, if they inure not, the meed of praise and approbation.

The author farther pleads the circumstance of his version being *complete*, as a reason for offering it to the world after the *incomplete* translations of Mr. Cowper and Dr. Symmons; and, on the whole, he seems satisfied that there was a hiatus in our literature which wanted to be filled, and that he has succeeded in his endeavour to fill it "*passably well*." We are sorry to dissent from this agreeable conception: but we are much deceived if our readers will not join in our non-conformity with Mr. Strutt's notions, before we have concluded our examination of his volume.

The first elegy of Milton to Charles Diodate (as Mr. Warton calls him) was written from the house of Milton's father in *Bread Street, London*, to his friend in *Cheshire*. It was composed during the period of Milton's rustication from Cambridge, and is a curious and interesting specimen of the author's feelings on that subject, as well as of his general literary taste. We think that the present translator has done no justice to any part of it; and that nothing can be more spiritless in expression, or more undignified in cadence and harmony, than the following lines:

‘ *To Charles Diodate.*

- ‘ At length thy letters, Diodate, appear,  
Thy thoughts to me imparting from the shore  
Of castled Dee, where fall his waters clear  
In the rough bosom of the ocean hoar.
- ‘ Believe me, I rejoice that foreign plains  
Foster for me so true and dear a friend;  
And, though in distant fields he now remains,  
That soon his course again must homeward bend.
- ‘ Thy Milton dwells content within those walls,  
Pellucid Thames with reinnet current laves;  
Nor cares awhile to leave these studious halls,  
(Forbidden now) by Cam's rush-fringed waves;
- ‘ Whose barren plains and hills devoid of shade,  
But ill agree with sweet Apollo's lyre:  
Nor more I'll hear the master stern upbraid,  
And threaten wrath, unbrook'd by youthful fire.
- ‘ If it be banishment to view again  
My native fields, and sweet repose enjoy,  
I hail my lot, nor sad, of fate complain;  
With exile pleas'd, no cares my peace destroy.

We

We have no reason for supposing that the first elegy has been less laboured than any of the others; and yet we observe an entire failure in this specimen. It is not only of a general want of poetical nerve, and of classical versification, which we complain: the sense is completely misrepresented in several passages, and neither fully nor elegantly given in various others.

'The shore of castled Dee,' we presume, means the castle of Chester (*Devæ Cestrensis*) on the banks of the Dee, but this is *not* the place

— 'where fall his waters clear

In the rough bosom of the ocean hoar;'

and Milton talks of the river *seeking* the sea, not flowing into it:

"*Vergivium prono quæ PETIT amne salum.*"

The "*Vergivium salum*" Mr. Strutt has absolutely lost; more, we hope, than the objection will be *lost* on himself, if we point out the bad taste and the bad ear of four lines ending with such *homoio-telautic* rhymes as those of his first quatrain. — The lines

'Believe me, I rejoice that *foreign* plains  
Foster for me so true and dear a friend,'

are as *flat* in phraseology as they are erroneous in statement. Cheshire cannot be called *foreign* to an Englishman; except on the principle that makes the inhabitants of one parish in the *Fen Counties* (Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, &c. &c.) call those of another parish "*foreigners*." Milton's phrase is "*terras aluisse remotas*," and refers to the *native* country of Deodati; so that, if Mr. Strutt *possibly* meant this, he should have said *foster'd* instead of '*foster*.' It would be endless, however, to point out such faults as these in Mr. Strutt's translations; and we shall content ourselves with slightly touching on the more obvious and gross errors. Thus, when Milton is made to say 'he views again' his '*native fields*,' and we remember that he writes from *Bread Street*, (*patrios penates*,) how truly absurd is it? but a feeble diffuseness is one of the most pervading blemishes of this faint shadow of its original. For example:

"*Tempera nam licet hic placidis dare libera Musis,  
Et totum rapiunt me, mea vita, libri.*"

'For studious here I turn the learned page,  
With leisure blest, and pleasing liberty;  
And the sweet Muses oft my mind engage,  
Who, sought with ardour, ne'er their gifts deny.'

The



The last line of another quatrain is a curious instance of a poet not knowing how to place the words in his own verses :

' The cautious sire, lover, or soldier proud,'

Were it read differently,

" The lover, cautious sire, or soldier proud,"

it would be unobjectionable enough : but

' The lawyer with a ten years' suit begun,

From the rude bench thunders his barb'rous speech,'

cannot, by any metathesis, be made musical in the second line. Perhaps, indeed, the sound was here intended to be an echo to the sense ; although we do not observe any such *beauty* in the original.

The ensuing stanza is really better, although a very poor version of such an admirable couplet as

" *Sæpe novos illic virgo mirata calores,*

*Quid sit amor nescit, dum quoque nescit amat ;*"

which Milton's favourite Ovid \* could not have surpassed :

' And often there some virgin pure is seen,

Wond'ring what pain her alter'd bosom proves :

She knows not that love's torch her breast serene

Has inly fir'd ; and yet unknowing loves.'

The sense, indeed, of the original may perhaps as well be given thus :

There too some maid a new-born warmth may prove,

Know not she feels, yet feel, the pow'r of love ;

or, rather, with Cowper :

" There virgins oft, unconscious what they prove,

What love is know not, yet unknowing love."

Let us, however, proceed with Mr. Strutt alone :

" *Ausoniis plena theatra stolis ;*" †

' Or theatre wide, thronged with beauty's store.'

What Muse, in those ' nightly visitations' which Mr. Strutt ' acknowledges,' (see the quotation from his preface,) inspired him with this extraordinary line, we are at a loss to

\* In this partiality for Ovid, many men of genius have shared ; among whom, Charles James Fox might be quoted. Mere scholars are apt to under-rate this various poet.

† The more accurately critical observations of later scholars have proved, beyond a reasonable doubt, the inelegance if not the incorrectness of using a vowel short before *æ*, *sp*, *st*, as Milton often uses it.

imagine :

imagine: but, whosoever the "nightly visitant" may have been, we trust that she taught her favoured acquaintance to pronounce the verse which *she inspired*, since no common means could enable him to do it.

' By smooth Simöis' stream, and Cnidus old,'

is a verse containing a false quantity of no ordinary magnitude, which we suppose came also by *inspiration* (a mode of teaching very hostile to learning) at the same time.

We succeed no better if we attend Mr. S. in his efforts in a lighter strain, for he has chosen to present us with a *poetical vagary* 'On the Death of the Bishop of Winchester,' in the following whimsical copy of Milton's third elegy:

' Yet mourn'd I chiefly thee,  
Who kept the holy see  
Of Winchester, renown'd with glory true.'

In the beautiful elegy on the approach of Spring, we have Phaeton used for Phaëton; and in the next, Glycère for Glycëra, and Proserpina for Proserpīna. Farther on, we have Japētus for Japētus; Nerëus for Nereüs; (Phaëton again;) Typhlonta for Typhlon, one of the names which Milton has given to the horses of the night; Siöpe for Siöpe; and we know not what for Hēcäergē;

' Hecæerge, whom golden locks adorn.'

But enough. Were this want of classical correctness expiated by any other description of merit, we should not have noticed it with *so much* censure. As it is, we conceive it to be our bounden duty both to the author and the public to administer a salutary although rough medicine to the former, in order that he may not be induced again to inflict on the latter a dose of versification equally rough, although by no means equally salutary.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR MAY, 1816.

### EDUCATION.

Art. 9. *A New Introduction to the French Language; being an Abridgement of the Grammar of M. de Levizac; comprizing an Analysis of the Verbs, &c. By A. Picquot, Author of "Elements of ancient and modern Geography."* 12mo. Bound. Low and Whittaker. 1816.

Although

Although this book will be acceptable as an abridgement of a good and useful French grammar, we question whether M. Picquet has rendered an additional service to his scholars by 'diminishing the number of French words' which M. de Levizac furnishes to assist in the translation of the exercises.

Art. 10. *The Soldier's Family*, and other Tales. By the Author of "Godmother's Tales," &c. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. bound. Harris. 1815.

Excepting in the tale called 'Lenore and Lieschen,' these stories furnish no histories of children: but they display the rewards of virtue, and may be deemed unexceptionable, if they prove amusing to young readers.

Art. 11. *A Key to Knowledge*; or Things in common Use simply and shortly explained. Written by a Mother, Author of "Always Happy," &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Harris.

Considerable praise is due to this little book, which contains much and various information, on such subjects as may be supposed to excite the curiosity of intelligent children. We would not qualify our approbation of so useful a work by minute verbal criticism, if it were not important to revise carefully the language of books intended for young people. This, however, being the case, we must object to such inelegant expressions as 'Stop Prate-space,' and 'Ah Sauce-box,' in pp. 14. and 17., as well as to the following inaccuracies: p. 37., 'at the top grows several long leaves:' p. 39., 'thus disappears all vestiges:' p. 64., 'the insect would pierce the cocoons or balls in their way out,' &c.

Art. 12. *Ellen the Teacher*, a Tale for Youth. By Mrs. Hosland, Author of "The Officer's Widow," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 5s. Half-bound. Harris.

Harmless as this tale is with respect to its moral tendency, we must observe that the language is so inflated that children will scarcely understand it; and the work may be termed a sort of miniature-novel,—a species of composition for young people, of which we regret to perceive increasing numbers.

#### POETRY and THE DRAMA.

Art. 13. *Poems*, by the Rev. Thomas Raffles, of Liverpool; James Baldwin Brown, Esq. of the Inner Temple; and Jeremiah Holmes Wiffin. Originally published under the Title of "Poems by Three Friends." Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Walker and Edwards. 1815.

We spoke of these poems with considerable praise on their first appearance, (M. R. Vol. lxxii. p. 438.) and are glad to find that the authors have been encouraged to re-print them, and to acknowledge the offspring of their juvenile fancies. They have also affixed the initial letter of the writer's name to the title of each composition, in the table of contents; the want of some such distinction we before regretted;—and a few stanzas are added, in answer to some which appeared in a news-paper, occasioned by one of the poems in the volume.

Art.

Art. 14. *Alfred*; by Joseph Cottle. Third Edition. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Button and Son. 1816.

Twelve years ago, (vol. xlviii. p. 437.) we spoke of the second edition of this poem, which had then undergone considerable alterations, and had particularly received a new and extensive preface, in reply to criticisms on the first edition. We are now informed that, the second impression 'having been out of print for some years,' the author has 'been induced, after a careful revision, to reprint the poem, and to introduce numerous illustrative notes.'

Art. 15. *Ivan*; a Tragedy, in Five Acts. Altered and adapted for Representation. By William Sotheby, Esq. 8vo. 4s. Murray. 1816.

Art. 16. *Ellen*; or the Confession; a Tragedy, in Five Acts. Altered and adapted for Representation. By William Sotheby, Esq. 8vo. 4s. Murray. 1816.

We are well pleased to see that our commendation of Mr. Sotheby's tragedies (see Rev. vol. lxxvii. p. 54.) has been instrumental in bringing them forwards as adapted for representation. We had the gratification, indeed, of hearing that a considerable impression of the volume in question, which had "hung upon hand," (to use the technical phrase,) had been sold off soon after the appearance of our critique: but we are still better pleased to find that our wish to have some of these plays prepared for the theatre has been effectual. If they are not exactly all that a theatrical taste would desire, they are still sufficient to redeem the age from the imputation of being wholly wanting in dramatic genius.

Besides various minor alterations in *Ellen* and *Ivan*, the latter has obtained an entirely new scene, written with much spirit, and well introduced. — We hope that the author himself, or some contemporary poet, will be roused to farther exertions in a department of literature which is calculated to convey the noblest and most intellectual recreation to the mind.

Art. 17. *Leaves*. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

This concise title ushers in a volume of very singular affectation, in our judgment of it. Some of the poems are superscribed 'Scattered Rose-leaves:' others, 'Peach-blossoms:' some are called 'Children;' and some, 'Scattered Leaves.' — "This," as Sir Hugh Evans long ago said, "is affectations — this is foolishnesses." Since the days of "The Song by a Person of Quality," or the later effusions of "Rosa Matilda," we question whether any Arcadian or Della Cruscan ever attained a more refined style of insipidity and sentimentality than the present writer. Let him take his station at the very summit of the

"*Phyllides, Hypsipola, vatum et plorabile siquid.*"

At page 99. the author quotes Virgil instead of Juvenal.

We copy two of the flowery productions of the gentle poet. In the last, through much whimsicality and even folly, we discern that species of morbid benevolence which characterizes so many members of the sentimental school; — a benevolence, however,

REV. MAY, 1816.

H

which,

which, when we call it *morbid*, we imply to be *real*; and to be the excess and the perversion of a genuine and a good feeling: but see Miss Edgeworth's *Parent's Assistant* for the idea of the story,

‘ SCATTERED ROSE LEAVES.

- ‘ Curved by some unseen sylphid touch  
To cradle Beauty's breathing form,  
I mourn you now, sweet leaves of rose!  
The spoliage of the ruthless storm.
- ‘ I mourn, — for thus, when o'er my soul  
Expanding blooms of fancy play,  
Then sorrow comes, with darkening cloud,  
And sweeps each tender tint away.’

‘ COTTAGE GIRL.

- ‘ Perched on a stone, beside the cottage-door,  
Sat a child-girl, in raiment somewhat poor,  
Blooming; — a wild-rose 'mid the invidious shade! —  
Lingering she sat, for not yet piggy came  
In her morn-meal his wonted part to claim: —  
Sipping, she anxious watched each opening glade.
- ‘ But now he comes, in coat his purest white; —  
(To ladies even pigs must be polite;)  
And now they joyful eat, and oft she smiled:  
But lo! too greedy of the goodly fare,  
Poor piggy munches far above his share,  
“ Take a 'poon, piggy!” then exclaimed the child.
- ‘ Ah, simple girl! yet man from thee might learn  
Love to his fellow man, and wise discern  
That all were better loving less themselves: —  
But sure, if some amid the various crowd  
Should gulp too much, 'twere fair to cry aloud,  
“ Take a 'poon, piggy!” to the greedy elves.’ \*

When will the press cease to groan with such absolute nonsense!!

Art. 18. *The Golden Glove*; or, *The Farmer's Son*: a Comedy, in Five Acts. With some Poetical Sketches, on occasional Subjects. By John Lake, Author of “*The House of Morville*,” a Play acted some Time since at the Lyceum Theatre. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. 1815.

\* \* The incident of a good-natured child constantly sharing its breakfast with a pig, and using this expression on finding that it eat too fast, I have heard a friend of mine mention with much pleasure, and I think he said it occurred within his own knowledge.

‘ Since writing the above note, I have found the same incident introduced into a beautiful little tale, by a writer of high talents, who is perhaps unrivalled in the philosophy of tale-telling.’

Mr. Lake candidly informs us that his "*House of Morville*" was condemned, and that his present comedy has been rejected at the theatre; and he talks so good humouredly and facetiously about these his misfortunes, and about himself and his other affairs in this troublesome world, that we cannot take exception at any little exceptionables in his manner. We must honestly say, too, that in our opinion many worse dramas than '*The Golden Glove*' have been brought on the stage; for, though the main incidents partake of the nature of improbability, the play has considerable activity, the dialogue is by no means deficient in life and smartness, and the characters are consistently drawn.

A slight scene may be detached as a brief specimen, and may be intelligible without a developement of the plot.

' *To Lady Clorinda and Angela, enter Wilmot and Vapid.*

' *Vap.* We intrude, Ladies: but in our own defence: for where either of your wits might singly preponderate, a counsel of them is dangerous.

' *Ang.* O Sir, you overrate our powers: yet our wits may improve by whetting, in which we look to your favourable tuition.

' *Vap.* No, Madam: the seminary of wit is the society of beauty. Here we consider ourselves the scholars.

' *Lady C.* Well, Sir, in that case we hope to find you tractable: but remember, if you make a contract with beauty, you have no other appeal.

' *Vap.* Yes, Madam: to justice.

' *Wil.* No, Vapid: for justice always entertains a good cause, but beauty often treats such with scorn.

' *Ang.* Yes, trifling causes — common pleas — that only pester its court.

' *Lady C.* Well, yet, methinks, he that allows not the justice of beauty cannot in reason look for its favour. — But what news abroad in the world, Mr. Vapid? here we are sequestered from it.

' *Vap.* No news, my Lady, none — the world is still in its old garb, in spite of the new fashions. Charity is as poor as ever, and would rarely have a crust but for its friend Ostentation. Merit, where it is not starved speechless, is still grumbling. Honesty is scarce, and Folly is in abundance.

' *Lady C.* The old complaints, I perceive.

' *Ang.* Yes, in which every one joins, to excuse themselves.

' *Vap.* Truly, Madam: yet there are follies in which we are not all implicated.

' *Ang.* It would require study to name them.

' *Vap.* Not much; for instance, that of love.

' *Wil.* Ay, George, there indeed, Scandal herself can't impeach any of us with that folly.

' *Ang.* No, thank Heav'n! there we are all exculpated.

' *Lady C.* And Mr. Vapid of course.

' *Vap.* Who, I, Madam? faith, no: I love my friend, my reputation, and my country. For the fair sex, 'tis as it may be. I did love my mother.

' *Ang.* Humph! You may have a predilection for age.

' *Vap.* Why, I can't say, Madam. Youth never moved me ; and when beauty does, I'll buy pictures.

' *Ang.* Ha ! ha ! ha ! Would, Sir, you might propagate your taste ; for if all lovers would content themselves with paying their court to the effigies of beauty, 'twould save the originals from a world of impertinence. Well, Heaven mend you ! you are past our reclaiming.

' *Lady C.* No, Angela ; Mr. Vapid confesses the power of beauty, only he prefers it with a canvass interior.

' *Ang.* Ha ! ha ! ha ! Yes, a canvass understanding : but all of them would have their beauties made of passive materials.

' *Lady C.* Yes ; but methinks she that obtains his choice, must be differently accomplished. Good day, Mr. Vapid ; we hope to convert you.

' *Ang.* Good day, Sir : make a proselyte of your friend, I beseech you. [Exeunt *Lady C.* and *ANGELA.*]

Dramatic and moral justice is executed on the seducer Sir Herbert Manorfelt by marrying him to the deluded object of his former arts : but the union of Lady Clorinda with the young farmer, and the whole progress of this love-match, are rather extravagant, and not worthy of recommendation by the powerful influence of theatrical display.

Att. 19. *Poems*, by Hugh Lawton, Esq. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1814.

' When Lady Avonmore shall take into consideration, that in thus dedicating a volume of *Poems* to her in opposition to a request which I acknowledge amounted to a prohibition, and contrary to her wish of having it addressed to some other friend ; when she shall on reflection find that it is the first, the only request her Ladyship has ever made that has been unattended to by me ; the only wish that has not been anticipated with eagerness, and fulfilled with pleasure ; I trust I shall be pardoned for dedicating to her Ladyship *Poems*, which, however void of genius they may prove, have, by her approval, received a stamp of merit, and a value in my mind that nothing could repay them for the want of.'

Such is the exordium of the dedication of these *Poems* to the Viscountess Avonmore. We cannot be ungalant enough to criticize very severely a volume so ushered into the world ; and we shall therefore be contented with making a few quotations, and as few remarks.

' To \*\*\*\*\*. *Luggilaw, County of Wicklow.*

' Fair Ellenor \* sigh'd, as she look'd o'er the lawn,  
The landscape the softest that nature had drawn :  
She pensively sigh'd, for in fancy she saw  
The form of her Henry at sweet Luggilaw !

' \* Mrs. Browne, of Baggot-street, Dublin, will accept the author's thanks for the pleasure he has received in hearing her sing these words to the tune of " The Meeting of the Waters."

' Though

- ‘ Though nature had pictur’d her choicest of green,  
 Though Peace still repos’d as she smil’d on the scene;  
 Yet something was wanting—for Ellenor saw  
 No trace of her Henry at sweet Luggilaw !
- ‘ Though the blue mist might hang, yet to Ellenor still  
 The blue mist became not the brow of the hill ;  
 Though the form of all nature reflected she saw,  
 Yet the lake shew’d no Henry at sweet Luggilaw !
- ‘ On its margin though spangl’d the sand with bright sheen,  
 Though nature exhausted her art on the scene,  
 That eye wandered careless—for Ellenor saw  
 No feature of Henry at sweet Luggilaw !’

We should be disposed to leave our readers in the pleasing contemplation of the above courteous little poem and note, were it not requisite to mention some other portions of the collection.

At page 80.,—and a large quarto page it is, with a magnificent margin,—we have ‘ *The Mouse’s Petition* !’ Reader, do not imagine that the mountain has been in labour, and produced the “*ridiculus mus*” of your old acquaintance. No; this is a *pathetic mouse*, ‘ whose heart beats not from fear, but with woe.’

- ‘ You felt my heart, when gently press’d,  
 Beat — *not from fear within my breast,*  
*Alas ! it was with woe !*  
 O Lady ! then with pity read —  
 It’s little fluttering sure must plead ;  
 Sweet Lady, let me go !’

We transcribe a part of the catastrophe of ‘ *Lindor and Ella*,’ the longest poem in the volume.

‘ Congeal’d with horror Belmont’s stagnate blood  
 Froze in his veins, as riveted he stood;  
 He kiss’d her livid lips, essay’d to speak,  
 Gaz’d on her face, and press’d her lifeless cheek;  
 Then call’d on Heav’n with all its vengeance dread  
 To hurl its thunder on his guilty head !

‘ Angels indulgent on the contrite look,  
 And Heav’n compassion on his sorrows took;  
 His agonies to soothe, remorse assuage,  
 A burning fever with malignant rage  
 Seiz’d on his shatter’d frame, and kindly cast  
 A blest forgetfulness on all the past;  
 Till nature’s genial current quickly froze,  
 And placed a period to his life and woes !!!

‘ One tomb encloses, and one grave contains  
 The mould’ring fragments of their sad remains.’

Three more lines in the same poem must be quoted. The first two are a couplet of no ordinary pathos and punctuation : (p. 56.)



' Pardon — blest Sire ! — this chaste — this last — sad kiss,  
For — now I — join thee — in the — realms — of bliss !' \*

The last is indescribable :

' Never, Oh Lindor, never ! cease, Oh cease !' P. 52.

Art. 20. *Infancy* ; a Poem. By Thomas Brock, A.M. Crown  
8vo. 3s. Boards. Whittingham and Arliss. 1816.

In a note to this poem, we are told that, ' if time can be spared the author from more serious occupations, he intends to pursue the subject of *Domestic Life* through its several stages.' We beg Mr. Brock, however, to desist ; and to suffer the present verses,

" *Infantum flentes animas in limine primo,*"

to be the first and the last of his intended series. Not that we are insensible to the amiable feelings inculcated in very decent verse throughout this poem : but an uninteresting tameness and mediocrity pervade the whole, which may adapt it for a lullaby to the cradle, but really do not render it suitable for general circulation. Let the parent read it to her restless infant, and, as she hushes him to slumber,

' Sooth'd by the sound, the Sleepy-Pow'r renews  
His blest composure, and the plaint subdues.'

(Page 12. slightly altered.)

' Blest Infancy ! till with thy spirit warm,  
Say, what is man ? — a heartless, lifeless form !'

The exact meaning of this couplet must be obtained by a painful perusal of the context. — We select the following picture, which is true to nature ; and, if it had formed a digression or a little appropriate ornament of a story in verse, we should have hailed it with a much more cordial welcome. Where it stands, it only adds one more to a tedious string of reflections and descriptions, over which the fondest mother or nurse in Christendom must herself fall fast asleep :

' What thoughts ecstatic all the soul employ  
Of the fond mother, yearning o'er her boy !  
She, as the darling frolicks in her arms,  
Lives in his life, and banquets on his charms.  
The curling arms around her neck entwined,  
Their first employ ! — the cheek on hers reclined : —  
The lips ambrosial, freighted with delight,  
That to their sweets so tenderly invite ; —  
The dawn of mind diffusing o'er his face  
The soft expression, and the speaking grace : —  
The mimic word that falters on its way : —  
The thought just gleaming intellectual day : —  
The tremulous laugh awaken'd into sound : —  
The tottering step, the room that ventures round,  
Till, with bold launch, disdainful of the hands,  
All unsustain'd the smiling hero stands !

\* Whether these dashes be an original invention of the author, or copied from Lord Byron, they are equally praise-worthy.

His

His sparkling eye! the triumph on his tongue!  
 The roseate bloom of health profusely flung!  
 The fall—the tear—the toy—the young delight!—  
 The pray'r at evening lisp'd,—the tranquil night!—  
 All, all, a charm ineffable impart,  
 Subdue the feeling, and enslave the heart;  
 There wind around the silken cords of love,  
 And add new strength to those which nature wove!

Art. 21. *Who's Who?* or the Double Imposture; a Farce, in Two Acts. By John Poole, Author of *Hamlet Travestie, Intrigue, &c. &c.* As performed with unbounded Applause at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. 8vo. 2s. Whittingham and Arlias.

Mrs. Centlivre's celebrated comedy of "*A Bold Stroke for a Wife*" seems to have suggested the composition of this farce; though Mr. Poole has made a still bolder stroke, and by a 'double imposture' has presented two heroes with a wife for each. Much, therefore, is here done in a short time and space, and probability and nature are both somewhat outraged: but Mr. Poole has the ingenuousness to call his drama by its proper name, *a farce*, though similar materials have been of late so often worked up into the higher manufacture of a *soi-disant* comedy; and here he may be allowed to expect 'unbounded applause,' if he can keep up an hour's bustle on the stage with incident and trick, and a dialogue sprinkled with touches at the times, equivoques, and puns.

The reader may take a sample of this entertainment from a scene between *Old Headstrong* and *Endall* a country apothecary; the latter of whom has been deceived by a report that *Headstrong's* friend *Kitcat*, a painter from London, who is coming to reside in the village, is a rival apothecary intended to supplant him, (*Endall*), and makes a visit to *Headstrong* to gain information:

Enter Doctor ENDALL.

'*Head.* My dear Doctor, I rejoice to see you. This visit is very kind.

'*End.* You are very good. Truly, Sir, your family is indebted to me for introducing many of its members into the world.

'*Head.* Aye, and for turning many of them out too.—But, come, sit down and tell me the news. If you were not so kind as to tell me all that is doing in the world, I might as well live in a wilderness. (*aside*) Tiresome blockhead!

'*End.* You flatter, Sir. But now, Sir, I come to you for news. Have you nothing to tell me? Nothing? Eh, nothing?

'*Head.* Why, perhaps, I have something to tell you that will surprise you.

'*End.* Ha! 'tis coming.

'*Head.* My nephew is going to be married.

'*End.* Well, and is that all?

'*Head.* All! zounds, Sir! is not the news of a marriage in my family enough for once?

H 4

'*End.*

' *End. (Aside)* Then it's plain enough. He is afraid to tell me, and wants to pick a quarrel as a colour to his villany. I'll worm the matter out of him.—To say the truth, Sir, your nephew did just give me a hint of the matter this morning. He seemed averse from the marriage; but, as I suspected you might be desirous to bring it about, I persuaded him to it.

' *Head.* You always act like a sensible man, and a friend, Doctor.

' *End.* Well, but he told me something about the uncle: pray, is he eminent in his profession!—Come, that's a home question. I shall know whether he really means to establish the Doctor here.

[*Aside.*

' *Head. (Aside)* His profession!—O, my nephew has told him about his painting, I suppose.—Why he doesn't make a profession of it now—he practices merely as an amateur.

' *End. (Aside)* Ah! then I'm ruin'd; for he'll give advice gratis—and people are not so fond of physic as to pay for it, when they can get it for nothing.

' *Head.* But in London, Doctor, he'll never make a figure, he's too fond of the amusements of the town; he wants application, and I find he has no patience.

' *End.* No patients!—pity—nothing to be done in his line without patients.

' *Head.* He does not practice so much as he ought.

' *End.* Of course he can't practice without patients.

' *Head.* True, so I have advised him to settle in this place.

' *End. (Aside)* To take mine.

' *Head.* I intend to introduce him to all my friends.

' *End.* You do, eh! (*Aside*) Here's a pretty rascal!

' *Head.* He shall not be in want of subjects to work upon.—He excels in the human figure—he has studied anatomy to advantage—he is an adept in taking subjects from life.

' *End.* So are most of the profession, I believe.

' *Head.* I intend to make him take you off for a beginning.

' *End.* That's making short work of it, but if I suffer him—

' *Head. (Aside)* O, I see; he thinks he's a caricaturist—My dear Doctor, you misunderstand me—he's very serious, I assure you; he doesn't make a joke of these things.

' *End.* A joke!—Confound him, it's no joking matter.

' *Head.* No, no, he's a man of a very different turn.—He sometimes gives lectures upon the subject of his art, to private assemblies of his friends—he excels in that way—his articulation is delightful.

' *End.* Articulation!—An anatomist too!

[*Aside.*

' *Head.* And his delivery—

' *End.* Delivery! a man midwife!—I'm cut up at all points. Sir, I am eternally obliged to you for the favour you intend me.

' *Head.* Not at all, Doctor; it's no more than you deserve.

' *End.* I shall choak!

' *Head.* And when you are properly drawn, you shall be hung up in my great hall.

' *End.* O, I shall go mad!—I can't speak, but I will assist Charles with my whole heart, and be revenged that way—Sir,—I can't speak. [*Exit in a violent rage.*]

' *Head.* Poor fellow! he can't express his gratitude. He is insufferably vain, and will go mad with joy at the thoughts of having his rhubarb and magnesia countenance exhibited in my great hall.'

If it were necessary to talk about the moral effect of a farce, we might object to the success which is here made to attend a series of impositions and a tissue of falsehoods.

## HISTORY.

Art. 22. *Essays on History*, particularly the Jewish, Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman. With Examinations, for the Use of young Persons. By John Holland. A new Edition, with very considerable Alterations and Additions. 12mo. pp. 358. Baldwin and Co.

We have already noticed an earlier edition of this work, which is one of our best elementary introductions to the study of antient history. The first events of human society are not well known on account of the paucity of records: nor, perhaps, can a wholly satisfactory theory be formed of some facts connected with the primeval history of the Jews. Mr. Holland therefore properly neglects the uncertain and the unsettled, and gives in a concise form a lucid narrative of the undisputed incidents. The great difficulty in Jewish history is the chronology of the captivity; and it is still to be ascertained whether the Cambyases of the Greeks be the Nebuchadnezzar of the Jews. In Greek or Roman history, little remains to be discussed.

An appendix of questions for the examination of young persons is placed at the end of the work; which will facilitate to school-masters the task of impressing on the memory of their pupils the somewhat scanty, but well-chosen, set of facts that are related in the preceding narrative.

## POLITICS.

Art. 23. *On the State of the Nation*: an Address to those Members of Parliament who are only actuated by a Sense of Public Duty. (By James Agnew Farrell, Esq. late High Sheriff of the County of Antrim.) 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1816.

Why should the author of this address limit it to any particular description of members of that body whom he wishes to consider it, and thus abridge the number of his readers? We will not say *how much* he thus abridges it, though some people will deem the exclusive line very extensive. It appears, however, that Mr. Farrell thinks he is thus addressing 'a number sufficient to carry into effect any measures on which they may be induced to concur in sentiment:'—but *hic labor, hoc opus est*: a concurrence of sentiment, among the author's 'well-meaning men,' is an object as difficult as it is desirable.

Mr. F.

Mr. F. writes with brevity, and professes himself in general terms to be a most hearty friend to strict *economy* in these times of public pressure: but, in adverting principally to the expences of our military establishment, we find him arguing the necessity of a large force both abroad and at home. As to Ireland, he says, the want of the number of military allotted for that station 'is unfortunately too obvious:' but he adds;

*'There never was a period when more could be done with perfect safety to the State to conciliate and harmonize that invaluable country, than at the present day. Now is the time for a permanent arrangement with the Roman Catholics of Ireland, on terms of justice and prudent caution, without the dread of concession being imputed to unwilling necessity! —*

*'The Veto appears to be the great stumbling-block; but if a moderate yearly stipend, or *regium donum*, were allotted for those Roman Catholic bishops and priests who might be approved of by Government, when they chose to interfere, and to those only in the manner so beneficially practised with the dissenting ministers of Ireland; I have not the smallest doubt, that the whole body of the Catholic clergy would, in a very short time, embrace the measure with thankfulness and joy; for they are now very inadequately paid by their hearers, who are generally poor. The influence of the clergy over their flocks, which hitherto has been a matter of so much dread, would then be converted into a powerful instrument of utility, and, in conjunction with that of the higher orders of the laity, would be productive of incalculable good.*

*'Were these measures followed up by some regulation respecting that perpetual source of hostility betwixt the Protestant clergyman and his Catholic parishioners — the SYSTEM OF TYTHES (which is the chief cause of the commotions at present existing in the southern counties) — they would do more for the peace of that country than any number of military you ever can employ to preserve it — at the same time that the tythe arrangement must certainly be hailed as a measure of relief by the Protestant clergy themselves, who, in many instances, are now obliged to seek for what is so justly due to them, through the odious medium of a tythe proctor at the point of the bayonet.'*

The author's main object seems to be 'the support of the land-holder;' and for this purpose he recommends a 'temporary bounty on the export of home raised grain.' We think, however, that all the great solicitude, lately shewn, to take care of the land-holder and his tenant the farmer, is considering the evil too much in its effects instead of in its causes, and would tend to continue the distresses of the community by maintaining the land-holder and the farmer in the receipt of the great profits which they have derived for some years past from high prices. Why is this to be done? avowedly, because they cannot otherwise pay the taxes. Then the taxes are the cause of the evil; and no remedy will be efficacious but a stern and unrelenting excision of public

public expenditure. — The limitation of prices, at which the ports shall open for or shut against the importation of grain, has surely proved itself to be a sufficient protection, without adding the measure of a bounty on exportation.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

**Art. 24.** *A Journal of a Voyage down the English Channel, in the Autumn of 1815, with Reflections on England and France, Observations on Sea Watering Places, and an Appendix ; containing an Appeal to the Legislature, and Outlines of a Plan of a proposed Institution for the Employment of the Industrious, and for the Detection and Removal of the Idle and Disorderly. By an old Seaman. 12mo. 1s. Darton and Harvey, &c. 1816.*

Benevolence and religious feeling are the characteristics of the author of this little tract : which affords a rather amusing journal of a passage down the Channel, and directs the reader's attention to various objects that will interest the humane, moral, and pious mind. The distressed situation of black seamen, when discharged from their ships, attracted the writer's kind exertions in their favour, and now induces him to plead their cause on paper ; and he suggests also the outlines of a plan for forming a society ' For promoting the Interests of Mankind in general.' This design may appear too extensive and indefinite : but a perusal of the more particular propositions included in the plan will shew that much might be done, if the ' Old Seaman's' very laudable views could find adequate support. We cordially wish that he may meet with a degree of success which, alas ! we can by no means fondly anticipate.

**Art. 25.** *A New and Practical Course of Book-keeping ; in which Double Entry is rendered intelligible to all Capacities ; and Single Entry, by being approximated to Double, is made to possess equal Proof and Certainty of Correctness. By P. Thoreau, Accountant. Folio. 9s. Half-bound. Law and Whitaker. 1815.*

We lately persued a book by an anti-democrat, who was extremely desirous of depriving the French Revolution of all claim to the merit of novelty ; alleging that it exhibited nothing which had not been repeatedly acted in the republics of Greece. M. Thoreau, however, is determined that his system shall possess in all its extent the attraction of novelty, and seems to have made a point of deviating, in almost every particular, from the established method. One of the principal characteristics of his plan is to enable the book-keeper to make the sums of Dr. and Cr. agree on both sides of the journal by adding up the respective columns : but what is the object of this, since balancing belongs to the ledger, and must be repeated there, whatever modifications are adopted with regard to journal-entries ? This, we confess, is the question which we are induced to ask, after all the recommendations of M. Thoreau, some of which are given in a very decisive tone :

' Such

' Such is the confidence of the author in his system, derived from practice and experience, that he would cheerfully undertake, in a few months, nay, he might almost say in a few weeks, to render any youth perfect in posting, capable of tracing and rectifying every error, and balancing the most voluminous ledger to a fraction, without any assistance to call over his work, or any other previous qualification, than an expertness in the rule of addition. To render this clear to the reader, and to display the simplicity and facility connected with the operation of posting and balancing, the author now proceeds to the 'principal check,' adopted in his form of book-keeping. It consists in this — that the journal is not only balanced at pleasure, by keeping the amount of Debits and Credits in constant opposition to each other, but the whole amount of transactions continually brought forward, so that as often as the book-keeper has inclination, or leisure, when the ledger is posted, he may make a "ledger trial proof" agree with the amount of transactions per journal. And great advantage arises from frequently doing this on a loose sheet, and filing it, until the subsequent 'trial' is proved, when it may be destroyed. It is unnecessary to remark the great facility which this practice affords, both to experienced and young accountants, in tracing the precise amount of errors at debit and credit, and particularly in cases in which one proves correct, and the other the contrary. In this case, all the labour of examining one side of the question is prevented. If, again, one side of the 'ledger trial' is found to exceed that side of the journal in the same amount, as the contra side in the journal exceeds that in the ledger, it will almost invariably be found to proceed from posting one single sum to the wrong side of the ledger, the amount of which will thus be instantly ascertained and traced, by casting the eye over the journal.'

Still we must acknowledge ourselves to be sceptics respecting the promised extent of the advantage, — purchased, as it avowedly is, by a considerable extra share of labour in adding up the two sides of the journal. We moreover cannot agree in the propriety of making the cash-book and account sales-book transcripts from the journal, instead of auxiliaries for the compilation of that comprehensive record of the transactions of a mercantile establishment. A more favourable opinion is, perhaps, due to the part that treats of keeping books by single entry; a plan which is adopted by most shopkeepers and tradesmen, and which may, with a few additions and improvements, be made susceptible of the accuracy and clearness of the Italian method.

We suppose M. Thoreau to be a foreigner, but he writes our language with accuracy, and he has evidently (what many innovators have not) a clear conception of his own mode of keeping accounts. We do not, however, discover either in his examples or his explanations the traces of a practical acquaintance with mercantile business; and we cannot avoid remarking that nothing is less likely to prove a recommendation to employment in the line of accountant, than such an abrupt deviation from the plan in general use. A person, who, like M. Thoreau, takes an office in the city and  
appears

appears desirous of obtaining business in the way of posting books, adjusting accounts, and instructing young men, would probably find it his interest to relinquish a part of his favourite method, and to seek to remedy any deficiencies in the old one rather by improvements in the manner of working than by fundamental alterations in the plan. He might divide all tasks that are complicated, and might set the example of getting two persons to perform together that which is frequently done by one, with less accuracy and much less pleasure than when animated by the co-operation of another. All examinations of books should be done in this manner; and, where the ledger-work is extensive, the posting should, in our opinion, be likewise performed conjointly;—nothing conducing more to increase the accuracy and diminish the tedium of the labour.

Art. 26. *Review of the Discussions relating to the Oporto Wine Company.* 8vo. pp. 106. Cadell and Davies.

More than three years since, we had occasion (see M. R. vol. lxx. p. 425.) to enter at some length into an explanation of the origin of the Royal Wine-Company of Oporto. About the middle of the last century, the want of regulation in the wine-market of that city having produced unpleasant consequences in deteriorating the quality of the wines, and having caused a great diminution of the exports to England, the government of Portugal interfered, and conferred certain powers on this association, of which the principal were to register and mark annually the number of pipes of proper quality for exportation, and to fix the price with a reference to the scarcity or the abundance in the crop of the season. This arrangement was made in 1757; and it is a fact that, after the establishment of the Company, a considerable increase took place in the export of wine to England, which may be deemed a proof of the improvement of the quality brought to market. Of late, however, the majority of our countrymen settled in the wine-trade at Oporto have exerted themselves to obtain an abolition of the privileges of the Company; who, not contented with supplying the merchants resident at Oporto, have long aimed at opening accounts with wine-merchants in England. This appears from some curious passages in the correspondence of their agent, who travelled in England so long ago as 1776. The ensuing epistle is given in the appendix, (p. 16.) as addressed by this singular letter-writer to a wine-dealer at Gainsborough:

‘ Sir,

‘ As Gainsborough is entirely out of the *rode* is the reason I do not go in person, hoping these few lines will have the same effect.

‘ The Royal Wine-Company at Oporto being newly *moddled* on an entire new footing; the members, contrary to what they were, are now all merchants well versed in the wine-trade. They have come to a resolution of receiving orders for wines from all the wine-merchants of England, who are in good credit; you may take it for granted, that no one can ship such wines as the Royal Wine-Company, for they have an exclusive privilege of *first*



first choosing the best wines; no one can buy till the Company has bought the quantity *she* likes.

'The last vintage produced 21,000 pipes of the best wines we have had these twenty years. This Company bought 17,000 of them before any one was admitted to buy.

'To be assured of what I here assert, you can only be convinced by ordering a few pipes by way of trial; you will have them cheaper, something in the price but more so in goodness.'

This is followed (pp. 18, 19, 20.) by other documents from the same pen, all remarkable for similar elegant phraseology: but the present agent of the company in England declares (App. p. 11.) that his employers did not make an undue use of their advantages, and were never in the habit of exporting annually to England more than five thousand pipes; about one-eighth of our regular consumption.

We extract the following table of the quantity shipped in the years between 1796 and 1807; in which, however, a few blanks occur, in consequence of the imperfection of the annual returns at Oporto:

Year.	Pipes of Wine Exported to		Total of Wines Exported.
	Great Britain and Ireland.	North-America, Baltic, Mediterranean, &c.	
1796	—	—	37,639 $\frac{1}{2}$
1797	—	—	22,603 $\frac{1}{2}$
1798	52,772 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,030 $\frac{1}{2}$	54,803
1799	52,283 $\frac{1}{2}$	908 $\frac{1}{2}$	53,191 $\frac{3}{4}$
1800	53,511 $\frac{1}{2}$	698 $\frac{1}{2}$	54,210
1801	60,850	3,113 $\frac{3}{4}$	63,963 $\frac{3}{4}$
1802	35,672 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,589	37,261 $\frac{1}{2}$
1803	52,300 $\frac{1}{2}$	668 $\frac{1}{2}$	52,969 $\frac{1}{2}$
1804	27,710 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,267 $\frac{1}{2}$	28,977 $\frac{3}{4}$
1805	—	—	35,413 $\frac{3}{4}$
1806	37,902 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,145 $\frac{1}{2}$	39,047 $\frac{1}{2}$
1807	—	—	48,858

The author of this pamphlet professes to write without prejudice, but he can certainly not be deemed impartial, his arguments being all pointed against the privileges of the Company. He maintains that their institution is quite at variance with the freedom of trade granted by early treaties to British subjects in Portugal, and explicitly confirmed by the late treaty of 1810. A similar course of argument was adopted by the British merchants residing at Oporto, in a late petition to the House of Commons, presented on receiving intelligence that it was still the intention of the Portuguese government to maintain the Company on its former footing: but this petition was soon followed by a counter-application to parliament on the part of the Company's agents in London; alleging that the privileges of the association were in no way

detrimental to the fair trader, and containing the following admonition :

That they have reason, from evidence, to believe that if the Charter of the Royal Wine Company be taken away, the greater part of the wines from Oporto would be mixed with thin acid brandy, which would afterwards be brought, by brandy, elder-y-juice, and other intoxicating ingredients, to an artificial strength and colour."

We declare ourselves to be perfectly impartial in this animated contest, and have no other wish than for such an arrangement as enable us to drink with comfort the allowance of port-wine (very limited) which is afforded by our reviewing labours. Coming to the question from the general principle, we should state the expediency of leaving the wine-trade open, in the way as any other branch ; on the plain calculation that the present loss of credit, which is attendant on the substitution of an inferior article, exceeds tenfold the temporary emolument. We objected that the habits of the Portuguese are such as to require regulation by authority, we should still express a hope that his remark was more applicable to their past than it is to their present state ; the principles of commerce being certainly better understood in that country now than they were half a century ago. - The true way to insure a good quality in the wine, without giving discontent on the part of the buyers, would be to subject vintners to certain penalties in the event of their contravening regulations as government might be advised to prescribe. This might be accomplished without investing an association with the prerogative now enjoyed by the Wine-Company of London ; and the reputation of the trade might be maintained by a legal mark, exactly as in the case of Philadelphia-flour and other commodities that are stamped by public authority.

. *The Epicure's Almanack ; or Calendar of Good Living : containing a Directory to the Taverns, Coffee-Houses, Inns, and Lodging-Houses, and other Places of alimentary Resort in the Metropolis and its Environs : a Review of Artists who cater to the Wants and Enjoyments of the Table ; a Survey of the Markets ; and a Calendar of the Meats in Season during the Month of the Year. To be continued annually. 12mo. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.*

*Almanach des Gourmands* of the French has long been celebrated and has probably given rise to the title and even the design of the work : but *The Batchelor's Dinner-Directory*, or some such title would have been more appropriate to a book which indicates the coffee-houses, eating-houses, and soup-shops of the metropolis, principally for the use of single men, and may be more profitably consulted as a guide to a cheap dinner than as a teacher of epicurism. The more sumptuous taverns, however, are also pointed out with ' the places of alimentary resort' in the environs of the metropolis, for the instruction of those who can afford a Sunday dinner : as also an ' alimentary calendar,' shewing what provisions

sions are fittest for the *alimentary canal* during each month of the year.—Altogether, the book will be an useful vade-mecum : but it is served up with rather too much *affectation-sauce*.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

## ‘ To the MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

‘ Gentlemen,

‘ Having read your report of my translation of St. Pierre’s *Harmonies of Nature*, in your Numbers for February and March, I beg leave, though satisfied in general of the justice of your remarks, to submit a comment on a few passages.

‘ In regard to the freedom taken by me in retrenching various passages of the original without any notice to that effect, I considered the radical difference of taste between the English and French public such as to make it almost unnecessary for a translator to intimate a modification of the exalted ideas which are so acceptable to our Gallic neighbours. This applies particularly to the introductory article by the French editor, Aimé Martin, the excentricity of which has in fact been admitted by you. Was it necessary, let me ask, to account to the reader for avoiding to follow my author in his attempt to specify a point of such uncertainty as the number of years that the Chinese government has existed, or in the still more doubtful calculation of the height of mountains of ice in the polar region? In respect to the mis-translations which you point out in the case of single words, such as *marl* for *marbre*; *marbre* for *marne*, &c. the errors are to be attributed to the printer, or rather to my having no opportunity (from absence on the Continent) of revising the proof-sheets; — a circumstance, which, in addition to other mistakes, led to the unlucky insertion in the title-page, of a superfluous *e* into the name of

‘ Your most obedient Servant,

‘ WILLIAM MESTON.’

Our readers may turn (if they please) to the article which is the object of this letter; and we leave them to judge between the writer and us.

Mr. Gourlay’s late pamphlet has reached us : but we think from a cursory inspection that its contents will not prove to be matter for discussion in our pages. We shall, however, look farther into it. At present, we do not recollect the former tract which he mentions, but will search for it among our heaps.

Several more volunteer-criticisms have lately reached us, but again we say, “ *Let no such men be trusted.*”

\*.\* The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXIX. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains (as usual) various articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title, Table of Contents, and Index* for the Volume.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1816.

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ART. I. Lord Sheffield's *Edition of the Miscellaneous Works of Edward Gibbon, Esq. Vol. III.*

[Article concluded from our last Number, p. 26.]

HAVING given an abstract of Mr. Gibbon's life, and recapitulated the successive objects of his studies, we are now to proceed to a less inviting task, and to render a report of the essays and fragments contained in the lately published volume of his miscellanies. This design will be best accomplished by taking, in the first instance, a brief retrospect of the contents of the old volumes (i. and ii.); after which we shall enter with more advantage on an examination of the materials now presented to us. The readers of these posthumous publications will find throughout the traces of very attentive investigation, but the degree of interest or amusement varies much in different parts of the collection.

The first volume was composed of Mr. Gibbon's memoirs and correspondence. Nothing can be more entertaining than those memoirs, and part of that correspondence: but another part, formed of juvenile letters, and consisting of queries addressed to Crevier, Gesner, and other scholars, is curious only as far as it is indicative of Mr. G.'s early habits of attention, and of his determination to do nothing without care.—The second volume is far less attractive than the first, including only abstracts of a number of books read in his youth, extracts from his journal, and a collection of memoranda and detached essays on different subjects. These cannot be reasonably expected to indicate depth, and they are, in several cases, directed to dry and unimportant topics; such as an inquiry into the title of Charles VIII. of France to the crown of Naples. Occasionally, we meet with an observation of interest, such as (p. 245.) the strictures on Cluvier, and (249.) the comments on the wonderful diffuseness of the Abbé de Montgon; who thought that whatever engaged him must be intitled to the attention of Europe, and wrote eight volumes on a question which might have been comprized in a

Vol. LXXX. I hundred

hundred pages. — The remainder of the volume is composed of the following essays and fragments: *Outlines of the History of the World*; 24 quarto pages. *Essai sur l'Etude de la Littérature*, printed in 1761; 58 quarto pages. *Antiquities of the House of Brunswick*, forming an historical sketch of the Italian branch of that house. *A Dissertation on the Masque de Fer*. (Mr. G. had a curious theory on this subject: he imagined that this remarkable state-prisoner was an illegitimate son of the Queen of France, the mother of Louis XIV.) *Observations on the Sixth Book of the Æneid, in Answer to Warburton*; 30 pages. *Mémoire justificatif, in Reply to the French Declaration in 1778, on interfering in the American War*; 20 pages. *Vindication of the Chapters on Religion in the first Volume of his History, in Answer to Davies*; 80 pages. *Arguments for publishing a Corpus Historiæ Anglicanæ, and a Recommendation of Mr. Pinkerton as Editor*.

Vol. iii. is ushered in by *Un Essai sur la Monarchie des Mèdes*, occupying 60 quarto pages, and composed probably in the writer's 24th year. We must decline to follow Mr. G. in his long disquisition on the mode of reconciling the different accounts given by Ctesias and Hérodoteus respecting the dynasties of Media; and be satisfied with observing that, amid several marks of juvenile imperfection, this essay contains occasional reflections that deserve notice, more particularly when treating (p. 48.) of the proper duties of a biographer, and of the ordinary faults of writers in this department of literature. — We are next to notice *Extracts from Mr. G.'s commonplace Books*, (pp. 512. 545. 553.) committed to writing in different years, and very different of course in point of interest and importance. They consist sometimes (as p. 540.) of memoranda made from authors of doubtful accuracy, (such as Raynal,) but contain, at other times, ingenious and useful conclusions. We give, as specimens of the latter description, two passages, one relating to the situation and extent of Jerusalem, and the other to a traveller of the 16th century:

‘ Tacitus describes the site of Jerusalem with his accustomed brevity and precision; “*duos colles immensum editos claudabant muri per artem obliqui*.” (Hist. v. ii. See likewise Josephus de B. J. l. vi. c. 6.) The hill situated to the south was called Sion, and originally constituted the ancient or upper city. The northern hill called Acra was gradually covered by the Temple, by the buildings of the new or lower city, and in modern times by those which surround the modern sepulchre. Jerusalem has insensibly moved toward the north, and the hill of Sion is long since deserted.

‘ By the comparison of the measures taken on the spot by Des Haies and Maundrell, it appears that the actual circumference of Jerusalem amounts to 2000 or 1960 French toises, (nearly 2½ miles.)

‘ According

According to the measurement of a Syrian engineer (Euseb. *Prep. Evangel.* l. ix. c. 36.) the circumference of ancient Jerusalem was twenty-seven stadia, which gives us 2550 toises, (about three miles,) and agrees perfectly with the nature of the ground as represented in Des Haies's plan.

It results from the best authorities, and the most accurate measures, that the enclosure of the great Mosque of Jerusalem (supposed to contain the whole ground of the ancient temple) is about 215 toises in length and 172 in breadth, and consequently about one Roman mile, or eight stadia in circumference. But if we deduct the waste ground allotted for the court of the Gentiles, the Temple itself formed a square, each side of which was equal to 500 Hebrew cubits, or 142 French toises, above 900 English feet. —

The Travels of Busbequius consist of four epistles, and contain the narrative of his two embassies from Ferdinand, king of the Romans; and afterwards emperor, to the Ottoman Porte. (November 1554—November 1562.) In the first, he describes his journey from Vienna to Amasia; the second includes the events and observations of a seven years' residence, or rather imprisonment, at C. P. It was his duty and his amusement to study the characters of Soliman II. and his ministers, the policy of the government, the discipline of the camp, and the virtues and vices of the most formidable enemies of Christendom. The tragic adventures of Mustapha and Bajazet are told with the spirit and dignity of an historian. His ears, or those of his interpreters, were always open to the reports of foreign countries, of Crim Tartary, Mingrelia, and Carthay. We are indebted to his curiosity for the first copy of the marbles of Ancyra, and the most ancient MS. of Dioscorides; and he viewed, with the eyes of a naturalist, the numerous collection of animals that enlivened his solitude. Busbequius is my old and familiar acquaintance; a frequent companion in my post-chaise. His latinity is eloquent, his manner is lively, his remarks are judicious.

We have, in another part, several observations on a very different subject, — the condition of Russia, and the supposed circumstances of the death of Peter III., the husband of Catherine; who is said to have heard of his assassination with perfect composure, and to have afterward eaten her dinner as if nothing unusual had occurred. Mr. Gibbon, however, adds the following remark on the author of these assertions, who has since become sufficiently known to the public as a writer:

These particulars are taken from a history of the revolution in 1762 composed by M. Rulhière, a French officer, who was an attentive spectator, and who afterwards conversed with the principal actors. Prudence prevents him from publishing, but he reads his Narrative to large companies, and I have already heard it twice. It is an entertaining spirited piece of historical composition not un-

worthy of being compared with Vertot's Conspiracy of Portugal. But I find that Rulhière's fidelity is impeached by persons perhaps partial, but certainly well informed; by the *Baron de Goltz* the Prussian minister, by the Count de Swaloff, Elizabeth's favourite, and by the Princess d'Askoff herself.

This information was gleaned by Mr. G. when on a visit to Paris, where he had an opportunity of frequently seeing Prince Henry of Prussia: whom he found to be a very lively companion, and disposed to talk with freedom, and generally with contempt, of most of the crowned heads of Europe, except the Empress Catherine, of whose talents he entertained a high opinion.

The subsequent observations on Latin and French writers of high name are extracted from Mr. G.'s common-place book:

‘ Sallust is no very correct historian. I blame, 1. His Chronology. Let any one consider the context of his history from the siege of Numantia to the Consulship of Calphurnius Bestia. (V. Bell. Jugurth. c. 5—29.) A fair reader can never imagine a space of more than five or six years. There were really twenty-two. (V. Pigh. ad ann. U. C. 620 et 642.) 2. His Geography. Notwithstanding his laboured description of Africa, nothing can be more confused than his Geography, without either division of provinces or fixing of towns. We scarce perceive any distance between Capsa and the river Mulucha (Bell. Jugurthin. c. 94—97, &c.) situated at the two extremities of Numidia, perhaps 500 miles from each other. 3. Having undertaken a particular history of the Jugurthine war, he neither informs us of the fall of the conquered province nor of the captive king.

‘ M. de Montesquieu quotes the famous inscription of the Rubicon as ancient and authentic. (Considérations sur la Grandeur des Romains, c. xi. p. 123.) We may excuse Blondus, and Alexander Alberti, for having been deceived by so very gross an imposition which carries its own condemnation along with it; has been regularly confuted by Cluverius, (Ital. Antiq. l. i. c. 28. p. 297.) and must be rejected by ever scholar in Europe.’—

‘ M. de Buffon often sacrifices truth to eloquence, and consistency to variety. In the fourth volume of his Natural History, (V. Discours sur la Nature des Animaux, p. 13—34.) the brain is the general sensorium of the animal; and the centre of the whole nervous system with which it communicates by an universal action and reaction; in a word the seat of sentiment and the spring of action in every creature destitute of an intellectual soul. Such is the basis of M. de Buffon's profound though obscure metaphysics. But in the seventh volume (Discours sur les Animaux Carnassiers, pp. 13. 16, &c.) this basis is entirely overturned. The brain is degraded into dead matter, insensible, and scarcely organized, which serves only to transmit to the nerves the nourishment it had received from the arteries. The diaphragma succeeds to all the former powers of the brain, at least to many of them; for M. de Buffon

Buffon disdains to acquaint us either with the defects he discovered in his old system, or with the parts of it he still chooses to retain, and the manner he connects them with his new principles. Instead of a candid confession that he had been seduced by a delusive though brilliant hypothesis, he endeavours to make the world forget it, by observing a profound silence on that head, in the copious and curious index he has drawn up himself for his great work.'

We find in this volume very few letters from Mr. Gibbon; a deficiency which we regret, since his correspondence, when addressed to a confidential friend, was in general amusing and attractive. His style in such compositions was in a great measure free from the faults of his printed works; bearing, indeed, the marks of labour, but of a labour directed less to pompous display than to conciseness and lively turns. — We have, however, no inconsiderable number of epistles from his friends; and we were much amused, in looking over the correspondence, with the complimentary strain of the letters of Horace Walpole. After having expatiated in praise of the first volume of "*The Decline and Fall*," Mr. W. exclaims,

'How can you know so much, judge so well, possess your subject and your knowledge and your power of judicious reflection so thoroughly, and yet command yourself and betray no dictatorial arrogance of decision? How unlike very ancient and very modern authors! You have unexpectedly given the world a classic history. The fame it must acquire will tend every day to acquit this panegyric of flattery.—The best proof I can give you of my sincerity is to exhort you, warmly and earnestly, to go on with your noble work;—the strongest, though a presumptuous mark of my friendship, is to warn you never to let your charming modesty be corrupted, by the acclamations your talents will receive.'

This vein of flattery is pursued (pp. 604, 605.) through the subsequent letters, and affords a curious contrast between an affected panegyric on the side of Mr. W. and the unsparing censure of Mr. G.; who begins one of his private memoranda (p. 569.) in these words, "that ingenious trifler Mr. Horace Walpole."

Among the minor essays, is a disquisition (p. 221.) on the character of Brutus, whom Mr. G. is by no means disposed to admire so much as he is regarded by most readers of Roman history. He blames him for a too early submission after the battle of Pharsalia; for subsequently insinuating himself into Cæsar's confidence; and particularly for taking the oath of allegiance to him, only a few months before he participated in the Emperor's assassination. — Those who are curious to investigate the subject will find it treated in two places (pp. 221. and 549.); in the former, at considerable length.



Another of the articles in this volume is a short essay (p. 83.) in explanation of the feudal system, particularly in France. The date of composition is uncertain, and we are not aware that this little tract contains any new views: but we consider it, on account of its clearness, as a proper accompaniment, particularly in the case of young students, to the first volume of Robertson's *Charles V.*

We have already adverted to an historical sketch of the antiquities of the house of Brunswick in the second volume of the miscellanies. The volume now published contains a farther essay (occupying 50 quarto pages) on the same subject, and brings down the history of that house to the end of the twelfth century. This is a very dry inquiry; and we are rather surprized to find Mr. Gibbon giving his attention, after his fiftieth year, to such a subject. Lord S. has offered no explanation of his motives, but he has filled up a chasm by introducing an extract from Butler's *Historical Notices of Germany*, replete, like Mr. Gibbon's essay, with a number of uncouth names: it begins with the reign of Henry the Black, whose history, in point of interest, is much on a par with that of his lordly successor, Henry the Lion.

Of Mr. G.'s abstract of Blackstone's *Commentaries*, the introduction only is here given; Lord Sheffield deeming it improper to crowd the work with the contents of a book in such general circulation. Mr. G. thus begins his MS.:

' This excellent work, which Mr. Blackstone read as *Vinerian Professor*, may be considered as a rational system of the English jurisprudence, digested into a natural method, and cleared of the pedantry, the obscurity, and the superfluities which rendered it the unknown horror of all men of taste.

' Unfortunately for this useful science, the foreign clergy, who poured in shoals into England after the Norman conquest, had little relish for the old common law of this country; they had formed the design of erecting upon its ruins the new system of civil and canon law which had just begun to revive in the court of Rome and the Italian Universities.—As they were the sole masters of the two Universities, they easily proscribed a science which they abhorred, and reduced the students of the common law to the necessity of erecting peculiar schools in London, and within the neighbourhood of the courts of justice. Although two hundred years have now elapsed since the Reformation, yet the reverence for established customs will easily account for so material a defect in our academical character not having been sooner corrected.

' I have entirely omitted a metaphysical inquiry upon the nature of laws in general, eternal and positive laws, and a number of sublime terms, which I admire as much as I can without understanding them. Instead of following this high priori road,

would it not be better humbly to investigate the desires, fears, passions, and opinions of the human being; and to discover from thence what means an able legislator can employ to connect the private happiness of each individual with the observance of those laws which secure the well-being of the whole?

Mr. Blackstone speaks with uncommon respect of the old common law, which the generality of lawyers highly prefer to the statute law. He will find it however difficult to persuade an impartial reader that old customs (begun in barbarous ages, and since continued from a blind reverence to antiquity,) deserve more respect than the positive decrees of the legislative power. I can indeed suspect that a general rule which is gathered only from a rude and prodigious mass of particular examples and opinions will easily acquire a prolixity and an uncertainty which will at last render the priests of Themis the sole interpreters of her oracles.

*Circumnavigation of Africa.*—This is the subject of one of the most important fragments in the volume; a fragment which, though somewhat obscure and devoid of arrangement, claims our attention from having been composed at an advanced period of Mr. Gibbon's historical studies. It treats principally of the disputed question whether the antients ever succeeded (which has been repeatedly asserted) in sailing round the Cape of Good Hope and returning by the Red Sea. Four voyages, or rather attempted voyages, of this kind are on record among antient writers; of which the first in date was that of Sataspes, a Persian, driven from the court of Xerxes for a crime which merited death, but which, in consideration of his rank, was punished with an order to sail round Lybia and return by the east; and he is said to have come back to the Mediterranean, after having passed Cape Bojador. The next expedition was that of Hanno, who, sailing from Carthage with a fleet, is reported to have advanced along the coast of Guinea till within five degrees of the equator. About a hundred years before the Christian era, Eudoxus of Cyzicus, a mariner, having gained the confidence of the court of Egypt, proceeded on a voyage of discovery along the western shore of Africa, and is stated to have gone a considerable distance to the southward; without, however, leaving any distinct memorial of the point at which his navigation stopped. If these attempts, two of which were undertaken under favourable circumstances, are found to have proved abortive, what credit are we to give to the alleged success of the Egyptians in an age when navigation was comparatively in its infancy?

Nechus, King or Pharaoh of Egypt, who reigned six hundred years before the Christian era, is mentioned in the Hebrew Chronicles, as well as by the father of Grecian history. The mind of

Nechus was susceptible of every kind of ambition: the Jews and Syrians fell before his arms; he entered Jerusalem in triumph; his empire was bounded by the Euphrates; and the ships of war which he built commanded the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. The execution of his canal from the Nile to the last-mentioned sea might have changed the commerce of the world, but after expending the lives of an hundred and twenty thousand of his subjects, the King of Egypt was alarmed by an oracle, and turned his thoughts to the fame and advantage of naval discoveries. At his command, and in his vessels, a chosen band of Phœnicians penetrated from the Arabian gulf into the southern ocean, returned in the third year by the Straits of Gibraltar, and proved for the first time, that, except in the isthmus of Suez, the continent of Africa is on all sides encompassed by the sea. In the autumn of the first and second year, these bold navigators landed on some convenient spot, committed their seeds to the ground, patiently waited the returns of the next harvest, and resumed their voyage with a fresh supply of provisions. The Phœnicians reported that, in sailing round Africa, they had seen the sun on their right hand, "a phenomenon (says Herodotus) which to some may seem less incredible than it does to me."

After a few remarks on the inquisitive spirit of Herodotus, and on his curious mistake with regard to the position of the navigators relatively to the sun, (a position which affords the chief argument in favour of their progress, since they would see the sun on their right hand as soon as they passed the line,) Mr. G. adds:

'I have allowed full weight to these specious probabilities, but I must object, with equal fairness, that Herodotus was a stranger in Egypt, who saw with his own eyes, but who heard with the ears of his careless or credulous interpreters. The priests were ambitious of impressing the minds of strangers with a splendid idea of their celestial and terrestrial science; and in the observatories of Thebes and Heliopolis, the astronomers could safely calculate the motions and aspects of the planets. A journal of the voyage of the Phœnicians, which Herodotus had never seen, must have demonstrated its truth or falsehood: their adventures would be measured by the standard of probability, and the seas and lands, the winds and seasons, the plants and animals, would be compared with the genuine and unalterable face of nature. But a southern communication between the Indian and Atlantic ocean might be affirmed or denied: the chance was equal; and a lucky guess may have usurped the honours of actual discovery. My surprise and suspicion are excited by the successful agriculture of the strangers in unknown climates and new soils; by the seeds of the temperate zone which yield their increase between the tropics: nor can I persuade myself that these infant navigators sailed round Africa in three summers to amuse the curiosity of a king of Egypt. The compass was in the hands of the Portuguese; they were stimulated  
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by the spirit of chivalry, fanaticism, and avarice; yet, after seventy years of labour and danger, their fruitless efforts were still repelled by THE CAPE OF TEMPESTS.'

He concludes, accordingly, by declaring his adherence to the address said by Camoens to have been made by the angry spirit of the Cape, when rising from his stormy waves and accusing the Portuguese of being the first to intrude on his unexplored domain:

" Nor Roman prow, nor daring Tyrian oar,  
E'er dashed the white wave foaming to my shore:  
Nor Greece, nor Carthage, ever spread the sail  
On these my seas to catch the trading gale.  
You, you alone, have dared to plough my main,  
And with the human voice disturb my lonesome reign."

The question may be considered as settled by the subsequent letter from a venerable scholar eminently versed in ancient navigation, but lately lost to the church and to literature:

' Dr. VINCENT, Dean of Westminster, to Lord SHEFFIELD.

' My Lord, *Deanry, Westminster, Nov. 6th, 1814.*

' Had proof been wanting of Mr. Gibbon's indefatigable spirit of research, his Dissertation, which you have put into my hands, would have shewn that he was as highly qualified for the great work which he accomplished, by patient industry, as by his learning, penetration, and discernment.

' I have sometimes, by way of amusement, traced Mr. Gibbon through his authorities in several detached portions of his History, and on every subject but one I have found the extent of his acquisitions, the adjustment of his evidences, the accuracy of his deductions, and the comprehensive view of his subject, such as to place him in the very first rank of historians.'

' I am sensible that I had given offence to many eminent persons in the republic of letters, by questioning the authority of Herodotus in regard to the Phenician voyage round Africa in the reign of Neko; and it must be confessed, that it stands on very different grounds from similar voyages imputed to Hanno, Eudoxus, and Antipater; but by comparing it with the voyage of Nearchus it was easy to shew what ancient navigators could, or could not do; and by contemplating the reiterated attempts of the Portuguese for almost a century before they succeeded, it was natural to conclude that the Phenician voyage performed in three years, must be a fiction of the Egyptian priests, without impeaching the veracity of Herodotus.

' The Phenicians directed their course by the stars without instruments, and the navigators in the Indian ocean, as late as the time of Ptolemy, sailed by the Canóbus, as the southern polar star. But that star is in latitude  $37^{\circ}$  from the pole, by which we may judge of the danger of adopting it for the direction of a course in the

the southern hemisphere. The currents, it is true, round the Cape, favour an attempt from the east, but again the currents for twenty degrees in the neighbourhood of Cape Verd, are as directly adverse. Could they double such a Cape by *rowing* near the coast? or durst they stand out to sea to double it as modern navigators do? These are my grand objections to the Phenician voyage, and with all the respect I bear to the Father of History, the authority of his Egyptian priests is directly contradicted by Polybius, Strabo, Ptolemy, and Scylax; and equally rejected by Purchas, D'Anville, Gosselin, and Robertson, among the moderns; to this list let me add the name of Horsley, who personally expressed to me his conviction, and the testimony of Gibbon, whose evidence I value as highly as any that has been given by the ancients or the moderns. Very happy should I have been, if I could have included the illustrious names of Larcher and Rennell in the number; but I respect them both too much, to give offence by entering into a consideration of their arguments.

*Extent of Mr. Gibbon's reading.* — We know nothing that would be more useful in giving the public an idea of the surprising extent of research necessary to the composition of a standard work, than a list of the authors who were perused by Gibbon; and we cannot help regretting that he did not carry into effect a plan proposed by him to Mr. Cadell, some time after the completion of the last part of his history, viz. to publish an additional quarto volume composed of, 1. *A Series of Fragments, Disquisitions, and Digressions, more or less connected with the principal Subject.* 2. *Tables of Chronology, Geography, Coins, Weights, and Measures.* 3. *A Critical Review of all the Authors whom he had used and quoted.* Such a supplement would have been highly useful to the scrupulous inquirer or to the subsequent writer of history: but the idea was dropped, the bookseller not being sanguine as to the pecuniary return, and Gibbon desisting without reluctance from a plan which was not likely to extend his reputation.

An interleaved copy of Harwood's edition of the Classics being at Sheffield-place in the summer of 1793, Mr. Gibbon wrote several memoranda on the blank pages. These are now published, (Vol. iii. p. 578.) and may be judged by the following extracts:

'Homer, B. C. 850.—The positive age of Homer is of less moment than the relative distance between the author and his work. After three or four centuries he might expatiate in the fields of fiction: but if Homer lived within fourscore years of the Trojan war (Mitford's History of Greece, Vol. i. p. 166, &c.) he might converse with the last companions of Ulysses and Æneas, and the probable human part of his narrative may be almost read as the history of his own times.'—

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‘ An Inquiry into the Life and Writings of Homer. London, 1735, in 8vo. by Blackwall of Aberdeen, or rather by Bishop Berkley. — A fine though sometimes fanciful effort of genius and learning.

‘ An Essay on the original Genius and Writings of Homer, by Robert Wood, Esq. London, 1775, in quarto. — Pompous and superficial, the scholar, the traveller, and politician ! Yet not without taste and merit.

‘ The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer by Alexander Pope. London, 1771, 9 volumes in crown 8vo. — The most splendid poetical version that any language has produced.

‘ An Essay on Pope's Odyssey, by Spence. London, 1747, in 12mo. — Pleased Pope, and can please none else ; dry and narrow !

‘ Ilias et Odyssea, Gr. 2 vols. fol. Glasg. 1758. — As the eye is the organ of fancy, I read Homer with more pleasure in the Glasgow folio. Through that fine medium the poet's sense appears more beautiful and transparent. Bishop Lowth has said that he could discover only one error in that accurate edition, the omission of an *iota* subscribed to a dative.’ —

‘ Dr. Clarke's Edition, 2 vols. 4to. Ilias, London, 1729 ; Odyssey, 1740. — Though not a Bentley, Dr. Clarke was a scholar and a critic. Even his metaphysical genius was usefully employed on the nice distinctions of grammar and language. His edition of Homer deserves much esteem.’ —

‘ Histoire d'Herodote traduite du Grec par M. Larcher, avec des Notes, &c. Paris, 1786, 7 vols. in 8vo. — The version is clear and correct ; the notes are learned and judicious ; and a scholar will only regret that Larcher has not published an improved edition of the Greek text. Yet this is the man whom Voltaire made the object of his ridicule.’ —

‘ Xenophon's Expedition of Cyrus, by Edward Spelman, London, 1747, 2 vols. 8vo. — One of the most accurate and elegant prose translations that any language has produced.’ —

‘ Polybii Megalopolitani Historiarum quicquid superest, Gr. et Lat. recensuit, digessit, illustravit Johannes Schweighæuser. Lipsiæ, 1789—1793, 6 vols. (yet unfinished) in 8vo. — This accomplished edition, both for the text and notes, will soon extinguish the preceding ones. The fragments are disposed in such lucid order, that we seem to have recovered the forty books of the history of Polybius.’ —

‘ L'Histoire de Polybe traduite du Grec par le Père Vincent Thullier, avec un Commentaire Militaire par le Chevalier de Folard, Amsterdam, 1753—1759, 7 vols. in 4to. — The mixed offspring of a monk ignorant of tactics, and a soldier ignorant of Greek. Language and history are tortured to support the *column* ; but in his modern anecdotes and observations, Folard is lively, interesting, and authentic.’

*English History.* — We noticed on a former occasion (M.R. Vol. xxv. p. 428.) Mr. G.'s zeal for a publication of the ancient English historians, and his recommendation of

Mr. Pinker-

Mr. Pinkerton as editor in that laborious enterprize. The present volume contains the final correspondence on the subject, which took place in the summer before Mr. Gibbon's death:

‘ MR. PINKERTON to MR. GIBBON.

‘ Sir,

London, 23d July, 1793.

‘ It gave me extreme satisfaction to learn the proposed scheme of publishing our ancient historians, under the auspices of the greatest of modern historians, and whose name alone would ensure success to the work, and occasion the revival of an important study, too much and too long neglected in this otherwise scientific country. Your favourable mention of me as reviser flattered me much, for *magnum laudari a laudatis*. I should not only exert all my industry in collating MSS. revising the press, &c. but should execute my labours *con amore*, as on the favourite object of long pursuit: but all this would be nothing without your name, which is a tower of strength; and as Mr. Nicol expressed his hope that you would consent to give your advice, as to the authors employed, and other important points, so he and I warmly join (and I hear the literary voice of present and future nations accord with ours) in the request that you will allow your name to appear as superintending the work, or as the Latin, I believe, would express it, *curante*, &c. It is also hoped that you will spare a few hours to clothe the Prospectus, upon which much depends, with your powerful eloquence, which, like a coat of mail, unites the greatest splendour with the greatest strength.

‘ If you consent to this, as Mr. Nicol wishes that no time may be lost, I shall begin to prepare materials for the Prospectus, and send them to you when your convenience suits. This will be the more easy as, in the year 1788, I published in the Gentleman's Magazine twelve “Letters to the people of Great Britain, on the cultivation of their national history,” pointing out the deficiencies in this line of study. Among others I mentioned that in the Saxon Chronicle not less than fifty pages may be found in MSS. in the Museum, which are wanting in Gibbon's edition, a book consisting of only 244 pages.’

‘ MR. GIBBON to MR. PINKERTON.

‘ Dear Sir,

Sheffield Place, 25th July, 1793.

‘ On the principal subject of your letter I shall explain myself with the frankness becoming your character and my own. Above twelve years ago, in a note to the third volume of my history, I expressed the surprise and shame, which I had long entertained, that, after the example and success of the other countries of Europe, England alone, with such superior materials, should not have yet formed a collection of her original historians. I still persevere in the same sentiments, that the work would be acceptable to the public, and honourable to all the persons at whose expence, or by whose labour, it should be executed. I might doubt whether any single editor, however learned or laborious, could perform a task of such magnitude and variety with sufficient dispatch to satisfy the impatience of the world: yet I am not much a friend to republics

ness of any kind; nor, in the choice of a sole or chief artist, do I know of any one so well qualified as yourself, by your previous studies, your love of historic truth, your Herculean industry, and the vigorous energies of your mind and character.

Thinking as I do, and called upon in so pressing and particular a manner, by yourself and Mr. Nicol, it is incumbent on me to explain for how much I can undertake. I will embrace every opportunity, both public and private, of declaring my approbation of the work, and my esteem for the editor. I shall be always ready to assist at your secret committee; to offer my advice with regard to the choice and arrangement of your materials; and to join with you in forming a general outline of the plan. If you proceed in drawing up a prospectus, I shall consider it with my best attention; nor shall I be averse to the crowning your solid edifice with something of an ornamental frieze. When the subscription is proposed, I shall underwrite my name for, at least, six copies: and I trust that a large contribution from a moderate fortune will be received as a sincere and unequivocal mark of approbation. But you seem to wish for somewhat more, the public use of my name as Curator, or superintendent, of the work; and on this delicate and ambiguous point you must allow me to pause. My name (*qualecunque sit*) I could not lend with fairness to the public, or credit to myself, without engaging much farther than I am either able or willing to do. Our old English historians have never been the professed object of my studies; my literary occupations, or rather amusements, lead me into a very distant path, and my speedy return to the Continent (next spring at the latest) will preclude all opportunities of regular inspection, or frequent correspondence.—

Lord Sheffield adds, in a note,

‘It was Mr. Pinkerton’s Inquiry into the History of Scotland, a book always mentioned by Mr. Gibbon with applause, which induced him to apply to its author to undertake the publication of this great national design, first formed by our eminent historian. Some of the objections in this letter were overcome: it was agreed that Mr. Cadell, if he chose, should be nominated publisher, &c. The final arrangement was, that Mr. Pinkerton’s name should appear in the title-page as sole editor; but that Mr. Gibbon should write a general preface to the work, and a particular preface to each volume, containing a review of the history, and historians of each epoch; for which purpose, on his return to Lausanne, he was to peruse all the ancient English historians in a chronological course, a labour which he mentioned with pleasure, as the last and most favourite occupation of his life. So vain are human hopes! Mr. Gibbon also agreed to write the Prospectus, and to allow it to appear with his name; but he died on the day appointed for its publication, and with him all views of success in a design of such magnitude, which it was doubtful if even his name and co-operation could have carried into effect.’

Such are the principal contents of this third volume of the *Miscellanies* of Gibbon. Lord Sheffield may be censured by  
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some readers for giving to the world so large a proportion of juvenile and unconnected observations: but, if his partiality to his friend has led him to attach interest to fragments which to others seem dry and unimportant, he will be praised by all for excluding, from this posthumous publication, every thing that might be at variance with the cause of religion.—The volume is in general printed with care; yet a revisal would be expedient in the event of its coming to another edition. We have, for instance, in the table of contents, (p. 5.) the year 1797 for 1767; and in p. 10. 1798 for 1793. Again, in p. 371., *nonante cinq* should be *trente cinq*; p. 674, *quelle courage* should be *quel courage*; and in a French letter (p. 654.) our favourite game is called *wisk*; a trespass, however, originating probably with the correspondent rather than the printer.

We are now to make some observations on Mr. Gibbon's style, and on a point which has been more rarely discussed, his deficient fidelity of expression. His plan, he tells us, was to premeditate very little in conversation, and very much in writing. In composing a note or a letter, he had, before he took up the pen, completely arranged what he meant to express; his custom was the same with regard to the sentences in his printed works; and he would occasionally walk several times about his room before he had finished a period to his taste. His practice, to use his own curious expression, was to 'cast a whole paragraph in a single mould; to try it by his ear; to deposit it in his memory; but to suspend the action of the pen, until he had given the last polish to his words.' One of the great objections to such pompous language as this is the difficulty of accommodating it to the real transactions of life, and the consequent temptation to give a colouring to facts, for the purpose of raising them to a level with elevated diction. A strong example of this danger is afforded by Mr. G.'s account of the sale of the first volume of his history. 'The first impression was sold off,' he says, 'in a few *days*; a second and a third were scarcely adequate to the demand; my book was on every table and almost on every *toilette*.' Now, what was in plain English the state of the case? The book was published on the 17th of February 1776, to the extent of a thousand copies; and in the commencement of June a second edition came forth, which went off so well that Mr. Cadell began to talk of a third edition for the *following year*. We may thus read *months* instead of *days*; and, though some allowance may be made for amplification in a point so nearly interesting to his vanity, we cannot avoid remarking that in his Memoirs several instances occur in which the exaggeration serves no other purpose than that of pointing an antithesis or rounding a period. In alluding

ing to a letter received by him in his youth from Gesner, he says, in a tone of disappointment, 'the vain old man covered a page with a list of his titles:' but, on turning to the letter itself, we find the German philosopher answering, with scrupulous care, the inquiries of his youthful correspondent, and subjoining his different titles merely for the sake of enabling Mr. Gibbon to put an accurate address on his subsequent letters.—Dr. Priestley was, it is well known, one of the assailants of the part of Mr. G.'s history which treated of religion; and the latter has chosen (*Memoirs*, p. 154.) to allude to this difference in a strain by no means supported by the epistolary documents appended to the latter part of the volume. A more amusing instance of this trespass, and of the contradictions of which it is productive, occurs in his observations on our Honourable and Right Honourable legislators. In one passage he calls the eight sessions during which he sat in parliament a 'school of civil prudence;' in another, he wonders how any intelligent man should not be 'tired of the repetition of dull nonsense, which, in that illustrious assembly, so far outweighs the proportion of reason and eloquence.' The inference which we are obliged to draw from such a succession of mis-statements, in the short compass of his private memoirs, is that a corresponding deduction ought, in all probability, to be made from the accuracy of several of his historical delineations. Whoever attempts to keep up an artificial and inflated style, throughout the whole of a narrative, must not only omit but distort a variety of important particulars. Mr. G.'s subject was grand, and its remoteness admits of a certain licence in neglecting the familiar and amplifying the dignified parts: but we think that he has carried this liberty beyond all reasonable bounds; and that an unassuming and scrupulous writer, going over the same materials, would find reason not only to qualify but to alter many of his statements.

What ought, then, to be our final estimate of the historian of the Lower Empire? We were never among the number of those who, according to an expression in a letter from Dr. Smith, (written in the last year of his life, and probably under the effects of superannuation,) set Mr. Gibbon "at the head of the whole literary tribe then existing in Europe." Time has opened the eyes of the majority of the public to the fascination of first impressions; and the near view given, by the publication of the *Miscellanies*, of the juvenile efforts and abortive attempts of Mr. G., is by no means calculated to revive a feeling of ardent admiration. Still it must not be said that the noble editor has caused, in the view of the considerate reader, any detriment to the reputation of his friend; or that

Mr. G.

Mr. G. is not intitled to hold a high rank in literature. The volumes before us inculcate a very useful lesson; and they shew that, if their author were not possessed of *wonderful* attainments, his career is extremely instructive, as an example of what may be eventually accomplished by persevering study, and resolute adherence to a main object. Among our *literati* of the present day, we have several not inferior to Mr. G. in quickness of comprehension, in familiarity with the classics, and in extent of general erudition: but do they pursue their studies with equal assiduity; and will they consent, like him, to suspend digressive reading, or refrain from catching at opportunities which promise early a transient fame? To all these persons we would hold out the example afforded by Mr. G. in making abstracts of valuable works; in studying coins, inscriptions, and medals; in reading regularly with the pen in his hand; and, finally, in withdrawing for years from the society and pleasures of London. His history is beyond question a great work, and, whatever we may have said in deduction from his talents, should be brought forwards as an additional proof of the extraordinary advantages arising from well directed application; — we mean, care in the mode of study, and unity in the object of pursuit.

Art. II. *The Transactions of the Linnéan Society of London.* Vol. XI. Part the Second. 4to. pp. 262. 1l. 11s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co. 1815.

WE have already (M. R. N. S. Vol. lxxv. p. 240.) made our report of the first part of this volume. The second, which now invites our attention, opens with the respectful intimation that the Prince Regent has been graciously pleased to become the Patron of the Linnéan Society, and to confer on its highly distinguished President the honour of Knighthood.

The first in order of the scientific contributions now before us is intitled,

*An Account of some new and rare marine British Shells and Animals.* By George Montagu, Esq. F.L.S. — The shells in question, having been discovered since the publication of the author's supplement to his *Testacea Britannica*, may be regarded as a fresh addition to that valuable work. They are denominated *Lepas cornuta*, *L. membranacea*, *Bulla membranacea*, *Bulla tentaculata*, *Mya striata*, *Terebratula cranium*, *Turbo Zetlandicus*, *T. dispar*, and *Patella distorta*. — We cannot sufficiently applaud the zeal and industry with which Mr. Montagu labours to enlarge the boundaries of the British Fauna.

Fauna. If his descriptions are seldom characterized by elegant conciseness, they are never obscure; and, though somewhat unwieldy, they bespeak uncommon attention to the minute differences of species. Of the animal which invests both the *bullæ* mentioned above, he constitutes the genus *Lamellaria*, of which the species either have a plumose appendage or want it. Both sorts were discovered in the same habitation, namely, the salt-rock of the æstuary of Kingsbridge, long a favourite spot for the researches of the curious naturalist; and yet neither species was observed till 1809. — *Mya striata* appears to have been discovered in Tenby bay, by Mr. Lyons; and to the Reverend Mr. [now Dr.] Fleming, the author is indebted for his knowledge of *Terebratula cranium*, *Turbo Zellandicus*, and *Patella distorta*. — The molluscous vermes here noticed are, *Doris pedata*, *D. bifida*, *Spio crenaticornis*, and *Medusa pocillum*.

Descriptions of two intestinal vermes, both of rare occurrence on the coast of Devonshire, and designated *Branchiarius quadrangulatus*, and *Diplothis hyalina*, close this interesting paper, which is illustrated by excellent plates.

*Observations on Cancer Salinus.* By the Reverend Thomas Rackett, F.R.S. and L.S. — The minute crab, to which these short but curious observations refer, is more popularly known by the name of *Lymington Shrimp*, or *Brine-worm*. It abounds in the open tanks at Lymington, where it inhabits a concentrated solution of salt that proves instantly fatal to most marine animals. According to Mr. Rackett, it is now figured for the first time.

*Description of the Corvus leucolophus, or white crowned Crow of India, in a Letter to Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq. F.R.S. and A.S. V.P.L.S.* By Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Hardwicke, F.L.S. — We are told that ‘this bird is a native of the forests in the mountains above Hurdwar, and was noticed in a journey to Sireenagur in 1796. They are found in numbers from twenty to fifty. When assembled in these parties, the noise they make is more remarkable than that of the magpie, and so closely resembles the human voice in loud laughing, that it cannot fail to draw the attention of the traveller when within the hearing of them. This singularity might afford no bad specific distinction; and perhaps the Society may think the Laughing Crow as appropriate a name as that which is here given. It feeds on fruits of the forest. The drawing was made from a living bird, and is of the natural size.’

*Some Account of the Trichiurus Lepturus of Linnæus, found on the Shore of the Moray-Frith.* By Mr. James Hoy, F.L.S.

REV. JUNE, 1816.

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— The occurrence of this fish on our northern coasts is a fact worthy of distinct commemoration. It is not improbable that the two mutilated samples, which Mr. Hoy describes, may have belonged to two species of the same genus.

*On the Deacidation of the Leaves of Cotyledon calycina; in a Letter to A. B. Lambert, Esq. Vice President of the Linnæan Society.* By Benjamin Heyne, M.D. F.L.S. — The leaves of this Indian plant are in the morning fully as acid as sorrel, but lose this property as the day advances: at noon, they are tasteless; and they become almost bitter towards the evening. Dr. Heyne quotes this phænomenon as an incontrovertible proof of the theory of Priestley and Ingenhousz relative to the disengagement of vital air from plants in the day-time, and of carbonic acid-gas during the night: but wherefore should the effect of a general law be limited to an individual case?

*Description of a new British Rubus, with Corrections of the Descriptions of Rubus corylifolius and fruticosus; and a List of some of the more rare British Plants.* By George Anderson, Esq. F.L.S. — The species and varieties of *Rubus* present such approximations, that they cannot be easily discriminated. In his attempts to extricate their characters, Mr. Anderson has obviously exerted both diligence and ingenuity: but he was not aware that his *sub-erectus* had been already described by Mr. Hall, in the Edinburgh Transactions, under the trivial name of *Nessensis*, because it was found by that gentleman on the banks of Loch Ness. — Mr. Anderson's list of *plantæ rariores* will prove very acceptable to such of our botanists as may direct their excursions to the northern regions of the island. To his solitary locality of *Senecio Sarracenicus*, he might have added the banks of the Clyde, near Bothwell Bridge; where, we have been assured, it flourishes in great luxuriance. — *Geranium sanguineum*, too, is very common on some parts of the shore of the Frith of Forth, as about North Queen's-ferry, Burnt-island, Kinghorn, &c.

*Some Observations on Iris susiana of Linnæus, and on the natural Order of Aquilaria.* In a Letter to Alexander Macleay, Esq. F.R.S. Sec. Linn. Soc. By Sir James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S. — Under *Iris susiana*, the learned President is disposed to include two varieties, if not species. The trivial name he ingeniously deduces neither from Susa, in Italy nor from the capital of Susiana, but from *Susam*, or *Susani*, the general Turkish appellation of an Iris. He suspects that *Aquilaria* belongs to the natural order of *Euphorbiæ*.

*Description*

*Description of a new Species of Psidium.* By A. B. Lambert, Esq. F.R.S. V.P.L.S. — For the particulars of this paper, we must beg leave to refer to the description and plate.

*Addendum to Strepsiptera.* (P. 86.) By the Reverend William Kirby, F.L.S. — We are here presented with a brief and imperfect description of *Stylops tenuicornis*, taken from a very mutilated specimen.

*Observations on Arragonite, together with its Analysis.* By the Reverend John Holme, A.M. F.L.S. — From this gentleman's experiments, it should seem that, in arragonite, the water is chemically combined, and not, as in carbonate of lime, mechanically mixed; and that, from this difference of constitution, we may account for the anomalous crystallization, the superior hardness, and the specific gravity, of the former.

*Further Observations on the Genus Meloë, with Descriptions of Six Exotic Species.* By William Elford Leach, M.D. F.L.S. — These additional notices, besides descriptions, include supplemental remarks on the British species before particularized in p. 35. of this volume, and some amendments of the subdivisions of the family.

*Of the Developement of the Seminal Germ.* By the Reverend Patrick Keith, F.L.S. — After having exposed, in a very satisfactory manner, the insufficiency of the theories by which Duhamel, Darwin, Knight, &c. have endeavoured to account for the well-known fact that the radicle of a plant invariably tends downwards into the soil, and the plumelet as invariably rises upwards into the atmosphere, the reverend author inclines to resolve the phænomenon into 'an attribute of the vital principle of the plant itself, impelling it irresistibly, though blindly, to the attainment of an end.' In other words, he would ascribe it to *instinct*: a term which, in most instances, is equivalent to the expression of our ignorance of the cause of the appearance to which we apply it. Mr. Keith is aware of the force of this objection: 'but the case,' he adds, 'is without remedy, as it is in the animal kingdom also, in which we know nothing of the nature even of the human mind itself, except from its operations.'

'Still there remains a circumstance unexplained, that is at least closely connected with the present subject, namely, the impossibility of converting the radicle into the plumelet, or the plumelet into the radicle, as the root and branches of the vegetating plant may afterwards be sometimes converted. For if the stem of a young plum or cherry-tree, but particularly of a  
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willow,

willow, is taken in the autumn, and bent so as that one-half of the top may be laid in the earth, one-half of the root being at the same time taken carefully up and gradually exposed to the cold, and the remaining part of the top and root subjected to the same process in the following year, the branches of the top will become roots, and the ramifications of the root will become branches, protruding leaves, flowers, and fruit in due season. (*Physique des Arbres.*)

‘How then is the anomaly of the successful inversion of the vegetating plant to be accounted for, since no art has yet been able to effect it in the seminal germ? This is a difficulty for which I do not recollect to have seen any solution offered; and in the want of all other plausible conjecture I submit the following: The embryo of the seed is an individual and solitary germ, whose developement is necessarily effected in a determinate manner, owing to the peculiar structure and organization of its parts, and peculiar action of the instinctive principle, that is, by the descent of the radicle into the earth, and ascent of the plumelet into the air, or into the soil and medium respectively suited to each. It could not, therefore, succeed by being inverted, because the radicle and plumelet contain as yet no principle whose developement could be effected in any other way; so that you might just as well expect a child to walk upon its hands, as a seed to germinate by the descent of the plumelet.

‘But the case is not the same with the vegetating and inverted plant. Its roots and branches contain now multitudes of buds or germs which have been acquired in the process of vegetation, and which, according to the doctrine of Duhamel, I shall suppose to be plants in miniature, containing the rudiments of every thing necessary to the projection of the species. Consequently they contain a part equivalent to the radicle of the embryo, and capable of being converted into a root, when placed in a proper soil, as well as a part equivalent to the plumelet, and capable also of being converted into a branch when placed in a proper medium. But the earth affords the proper soil to the one, and the air the proper medium to the other, the powers of vegetation are again exerted, and the inverted plant grows.

‘If it is said that the existence of the germs in question is merely a gratuitous assumption *without proof*, I shall only beg to add, that I do not positively insist upon the reality of their existence; but contend that if they should prove to be a nonentity, still the power of inverted vegetation must be admitted to be a power acquired in the process of the plant's growth, dependent upon the principle of propagation by slips and layers, and consequently not possessed by the seminal germ; in the same manner that the power of producing its kind is not possessed by the animal at the time of its birth, but acquired at an after period.’

We have given this passage entire, because it offers some original reasoning on a subject which is unavoidably obscure.

*Remarks*

*Remarks on Dr. Roxburgh's Description of the Monandrous Plants of India; in a Letter to the President.* By William Roscoe, Esq. F.L.S.—These pertinent annotations are worthy of the pen from which they proceed: but they admit not of abridgement; and they ought to be perused with the valuable paper to which they relate.

*Observations on the Genus Teesdalia; in a Letter to Robert Brown, Esq. F.R.S. Lib. L. Soc.* By Sir James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.—Some degree of uncertainty still hangs over the alleged difference between *Iberis nudicaulis* and *Lepidium nudicaule*. If really distinct species, however, they are most conveniently referable to *Teesdalia*.

*Some Observations on the Bill of the Toucan; in a Letter to the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K.B. P.R.S. H.M.L.S.* By Thomas Stewart Traill, M.D.—The conciseness of this communication, and the correction which it affords of a widely diffused error in Natural History, will sufficiently apologize for the transfer of it to our pages.

‘ Sir,

‘ Your polite attention to me on former occasions emboldens me to trouble you with the following observations on the bill of the Toucan.

‘ All systematic authors have described the bill of the genus *Ramphastos* as *hollow*. The Linnæan character even begins, “*Rostrum maximum inane*,” &c.; and Buffon has eloquently enlarged on the supposed error, or over-sight of nature, in furnishing so small a bird with a bill so monstrous and useless. My friend Charles Waterton, Esq. who has lately returned from the interior of Guyana, had observed, that when a portion of the bill of a Toucan is shot away, the remainder bleeds profusely; and on immersing the bill of a recently killed bird in hot water, he was enabled to detach from the exterior covering of the bill a horny substance, which filled its whole cavity, consisting of a delicate net-work of bony matter in the interior, surrounded by thin plates of the same material. On these bony partitions a great number of blood-vessels are distinctly ramified in the living animal. This gentleman favoured me with a specimen thus prepared; in carefully examining which, I found that the nostrils conducted to the internal cells of the substance within the upper mandible. From this observation, and the great vascularity of the part, I concluded that the bill is *not* an useless incumbrance, as Buffon rashly conjectured; but that it is an admirable contrivance of nature to increase the delicacy of the organ of smell, in a species whose residence and habits require great nicety in that sense. As the animal is incapable of either tearing or bruising its food, it necessarily must feed on small substances. Its aliment is said chiefly to consist of small fruits or seeds; and for readily attaining these in the wilds of al-



most impenetrable forests, an acute organ of smell is no doubt requisite. Instead, then, of regarding the bill of the Toucan as an useless load, I am disposed to consider it as an instance of that wisdom and contrivance which attentive observation every where discovers in the works of nature.'

*Remarks on the Bryum marginatum and Bryum lineare of Dickson.* By Sir James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S. — These remarks are intended to obviate the effect of an inconsiderate stricture, or two, which Mr. Bridel had hazarded on the discriminative accuracy of Mr. Dickson, with regard to the mosses in question.

*Some Observations on the Sea Long-worm of Borlase, Gordius Marinus of Montagu.* By the Rev. Hugh Davies, F.L.S. — As the study of the physiology and manner of animals, which compose the lower gradations of nature, is still in its infancy, and promises to throw important light on the various forms and modifications of vitality, authentic reports, like that which is now before us, can scarcely be too much multiplied. We regret that we can make room for only a few sentences of Mr. Davies's interesting account of this singular Gordian worm. It is the *Lineus longissimus*, or *Black Line-worm*, of Sowerby's British Miscellany, but not the *Gordius Marinus* of Linné.

'It being impossible while the animal was alive to make any reasonable conjecture as to the length and breadth of it, I took it out of the bottle, and, on measuring it, found it full *two-and-twenty feet long*, exclusive of the proboscis.'

'Now, after the various and repeated observations which I have made, I give it as my firm opinion, that I speak within bounds when I say the animal, when alive, might have been extended to four times, at least, its length when dead. I therefore look on what Mr. Sowerby gives, on the authority of the fisherman at New-haven, to be by no means improbable, viz. that this most astonishing creature may have been known to be susceptible of being drawn to the length of *twelve fathoms*; or, according to the account of the fishermen on the south coast of Devonshire, to Mr. Montagu, to *thirty yards* or *fifteen fathoms*. Indeed Mr. Montagu's own account, of one of the length of *eight feet* when alive, being reduced to *one foot* when immersed in spirits, does more than support my opinion.'

*A Description of several New Species of Plants from New Holland.* By Edward Rudge, Esq. F.R.S. A.S. and L.S. — The species here described and figured are, *Dodonæa cuneata*, *D. asplenifolia*, *Philotheca Australis*, *Darwinia fascicularis*, *Pultenæa ferruginea*, *P. elliptica*, *P. polygalifolia*, and *Eriostemon Salicifolia*.

*A tabular View of the external Characters of Four Classes of Animals, which Linné arranged under INSECTA; with the Distribution of the Genera composing Three of these Classes into Orders, &c. and Descriptions of several New Genera and Species.* By William Elford Leach, M.D. — This is a long and elaborate essay, evincing the rare diligence and discriminating powers of its author, and especially his conversancy with some sections of the productions of nature which have been hitherto very imperfectly defined and distributed. To exhibit, however, even a synoptical glimpse of his proposed divisions and subdivisions, and to weigh the propriety of his arrangement and nomenclature, would require a separate article. Yet we cannot withhold from our readers the following piece of insulated information, proceeding as it does from such a highly respectable quarter :

‘ As Sir J. Banks was writing at Spring-Grove, on the 2d of September, one of the web-spinning species, of more than the middle size, passed over some papers on the table, holding a fly in its mouth. Much surprised to see a spider of this description walking about with its prey, and struck with somewhat unusual in the gait of the animal, he caught it, and placed it in a glass for examination ; when instead of eight, he perceived that it had but three legs, which accounted for the inability of the creature to spin its web. But the curious circumstance of its having changed its usual œconomy, and having become a hunting instead of a spinning one, as well as a wish to learn whether its legs would be renewed, induced him to keep the animal in the glass, from whence it could not escape, and to observe its conduct.

‘ On the following morning the animal ate two flies given to it, by sucking out the juices, but left the carcasses whole. Two or three days after it devoured the body and head of a fly, leaving only the wings and legs. After this time it sometimes sucked and sometimes ate the fly given it. This probably depended on the state of the fly. At first it consumed two flies in a day, afterwards not more than one in two days. Its excrement, which it voided from the extremity of the abdomen, was at first of a milky-white colour ; but afterwards the white had a black spot in the centre, of a more solid appearance than the surrounding fluid.

‘ Soon after its confinement it attempted to form a web on the side of the vessel, but performed the business very slowly and clumsily, from the want of the proper number of legs. In about a fortnight it had completed a very small web, upon which it generally sat.

‘ A month after having been caught, it shed its skin, leaving the slough hanging on the web. After this change five new legs appeared, not half as long as the other three legs, and of very little use to the animal in walking. These new members, however, extended themselves a little in about three days, and became half as long as the old ones : the web was now increased, and the animal

continued almost immoveably sitting upon it in the day-time, unless drawn from it or attracted by a fly thrown to it as its usual provision.

‘ Twenty-nine days afterwards it again lost its skin, leaving the slough hanging on the web, in front of a hollow cell [which] it had woven so as to prevent it from being completely seen when lodged in it: the legs were now longer than before the change of skin, and they grew somewhat longer still in three or four days, but did not attain the size of the old legs.

‘ The animal now increased its web, and being put into a small bowl as a more commodious residence, soon renewed a better web than the first. In this state it was left on the 1st of November, in the hope of being found alive in the next summer, when flies re-appear, and being subjected to further observations.

‘ On observing this animal, it appeared to this acute naturalist, that those organs called palpi were used by the animal in grasping and changing the position of its food whilst applied to the action of the mandibles, serving in fact the purposes of hands. Hence it occurred to Sir Joseph Banks that these parts were improperly named, and that they were really similar in function to the claws of scorpions; which opinion is firmly supported by analogy, as shall on some future occasion be shewn, when the subject has undergone further examination.

‘ Clerk calls the *palpi* *brachia*, and asserts that they contain the organs of generation; an opinion entertained also by Linné, who says “*Penes in palpis gerunt* :” but, as Sir J. Bankes observes, this opinion is no where supported by a statement of facts, or of anatomical examination. That the palpi of all male spiders are clavate at their extremities, every naturalist well knows; but if they really contain the sexual organs of the male, it is a circumstance of a most curious nature, and well worth the attentive examination of the physiologist; and we shall feel much obliged to any naturalist who can give any information as to the truth or falsity of this anomalous statement.

In reply to this *invitation*, we can only observe that Latreille, in the *Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle*, describes the sexual union of the spider so minutely, that we can entertain little doubt of his having actually seen the palpi of the male, or rather their contents, inserted into the female organ.

*Description of a Fossil Alcyonium, from the Chalk Strata near Lewes, in a Letter to A. B. Lambert, Esq. F.R.S. V.P.L.S.* By Mr. Gideon Mantell, F.L.S. — Though the specimens here described do not strictly belong to the Alcyonian family, yet, as they approach nearer to that genus of zoophytes than to any other with which we are acquainted, Mr. Mantell has arranged them provisionally under the title of *Alcyonium chonoïdes*. In the course of his observations, he adverts to an important consideration; namely, that the remains of the same species, in different states of contraction or dilatation, have been too frequently enumerated and described

as distinct. The muscular powers of expanding and contracting its form, which the living animal in the present instance must have possessed, appear to have been very considerable; and we cannot contemplate the relics of such very delicate structures, arrested in different states of contraction or extension, without being tempted to suppose that the process of their mineralization was at once rapid and tranquil.

*Description of Nine new Species of Plants from Caucasus.* By Chevalier de Steven, Counsellor of the University of Moscow. — This article includes descriptions and plates of *Veronica cristagalli*, *Anchusa alpestris*, *Androsace albana*, *Cucubalus lacrus*, *Silene caespitosa*, *Orobis formosus*, *Serratula elegans*, *S. depressa*, and *Orchis mutabilis*.

‘EXTRACTS from the Minute-Book of the Linnéan Society of London.

‘June 18. [1811.] Read a letter from Thomas Mantell, Esq. F.L.S., to the Secretary, containing an account of an extraordinary instance of the preservation of animal life without food, in the case of a Pig which was buried in its sty by the fall of a part of the Chalk Cliff, under Dover Castle, on the 14th December last.

‘The following is an extract from Mr. Mantell’s letter.

‘On the 23d of May, 160 days after the accident, I was told that some of the workmen employed in removing the fallen chalk had heard the whining of the pig; and although I had great doubt of the fact, I encouraged them to proceed in clearing away the chalk from the sty under the direction of the owner, Mr. Poole, who was present. I was soon afterwards surprised to see the pig alive, extricated from its confinement. Its figure was extremely emaciated, having scarcely any muscles discernable, and its bristles were erect, though not stiff, but soft, clean, and white. The animal was lively, walked well, and took food eagerly. At the time of the accident it was fat, and supposed to have weighed about 160 pounds, but it now weighed no more than 40 pounds. I am assured, that at the time of the fall there was neither food nor water in the sty, which is a cave about six feet square, dug in the rock, and boarded in the front: and the whole was covered about thirty feet deep in the fallen chalk. The door and other wood in front of the sty had been much nibbled, and the sides of the cave were very smooth, having apparently been constantly licked for obtaining the moisture exuding through the rock. There was no doubt that some of the loose chalk in front had been eaten; and from the appearance of the excrement, it may be conjectured that it had passed more than once through the intestines.’

To this volume are annexed a continuation of the catalogue of the Society’s Library, and a list of donors.

ART. III. *The Story of Rimini*; a Poem, by Leigh Hunt.  
Crown 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1816.

WE remark something original in the execution of this little poem. It presents us with a free copy of the language of our older dramatists (for Dryden is laboured and adorned in comparison) introduced into narrative rhyme; and, although such an introduction occasions a frequent quaintness and air of pedantry in the phrases, the expression possesses, on the whole, a refreshing vigour, while the versification displays a facility and variety that are not inharmonious. If this facility will often run into the very familiarity of conversation, and this variety will degenerate into a ruggedness indefensible by any example, still we commend the genuine force and animation of the present candidate for the laurel, — the laurel, we mean, bestowed by popular approbation; for, as to more courtly favour, we are far from insinuating that Mr. Hunt has *even yet* been taught to solicit a distinction so envied by many of his rivals of the quill.

The 'Story' is told in few words. An elder brother sends a younger as his proxy to marry a fair lady whose rank and fortune are equal to his own. The lady, unjustly deceived as to the person of her intended, likes the substitute better than the bridegroom himself; and, after having been duly united to the last, she becomes unduly intimate with the first. Though the scene, in which this unhallowed intimacy is related, is as delicately touched as such subjects are capable of being touched, yet enough occurs to alarm the vigilant and perhaps fastidious supervisors of female reading in the present nice era. It is but for a moment, however, that the crime is before the reader; while the shocking consequences are detailed with unaffected moral feeling, and strong power of pathetic composition. The catastrophe is that of "The Orphan;" and we are reminded indeed of Monimia, Castalio, and Polydore, rather too closely throughout, by the heroine and heroes of the tale before us.

We shall present our readers with some extracts, which will enable them to decide on the justice of our preceding representations; subjoining a few additional remarks on the composition, and on an interesting portion of the preliminary prose which ushers it into the world.

The opening *description* is full of life and nature:

‘ CANTO I.

‘ *The coming to fetch the Bride from Ravenna.*

‘ The sun is up, and 'tis a morn of May  
Round old Ravenna's clear-shewn towers and bay,  
A morn,

- A-morn, the loveliest which the year has seen,  
 Last of the spring, yet fresh with all its green;  
 For a warm eve, and gentle rains at night,  
 Have left a sparkling welcome for the light,  
 And there's a crystal clearness all about;  
 The leaves are sharp, the distant hills look out;  
 A balmy briskness comes upon the breeze;  
 The smoke goes dancing from the cottage trees;  
 And when you listen, you may hear a coil  
 Of bubbling springs about the grassy soil;  
 And all the scene, in short — sky, earth, and sea,  
 Breathes like a bright-eyed face, that laughs out openly.
- 'Tis nature, full of spirits, waked and springing: —  
 The birds to the delicious time are singing,  
 Darting with freaks and snatches up and down,  
 Where the light woods go seaward from the town;  
 While happy faces, striking through the green  
 Of leafy roads, at every turn are seen;  
 And the far ships, lifting their sails of white  
 Like joyful hands, come up with scatterry light,  
 Come gleaming up, true to the wished-for day,  
 And chase the whistling brine, and swirl into the bay.'

The next passage that we shall select is a *description* of a  
 ferent nature :

- But every look is fixed upon the bride,  
 Who pensive comes at first, and hardly hears  
 The enormous shout that springs as she appears,  
 Till, as she views the countless gaze below,  
 And faces that with grateful homage glow,  
 A home to leave, and husband yet to see,  
 Fade in the warmth of that great charity;  
 And hard it is, she thinks, to have no will;  
 But not to bless these thousands, harder still:  
 With that, a keen and quivering glance of tears  
 Scarce moves her patient mouth, and disappears;  
 A smile is underneath, and breaks away,  
 And round she looks and breathes, as best befits the day.
- What need I tell of lovely lips and eyes,  
 A clipsome waist, and bosom's balmy rise,  
 The dress of bridal white, and the dark curls  
 Bedding an airy coronet of pearls?  
 There's not in all that crowd one gallant being,  
 Whom, if his heart were whole, and rank agreeing,  
 It would not fire to twice of what he is,  
 To clasp her to his heart, and call her his.'

We must also make our readers acquainted with the  
 ired brother; and the couplet, which introduces him,  
 not unhappily illustrate our accusations of *quaintness* and  
*familiarity*.

*familiarity.* The preparatory ceremonies and arrivals, before the anxiously expected appearance of the prince, are well delineated:

- ' When some one's voice, as if it knew not how  
To check itself, exclaims, " The prince! now — now!"  
And on a milk white courser, like the air,  
A glorious figure springs into the square;  
Up, with a burst of thunder, goes the shout,  
And rolls the trembling walls and peopled roofs about.
- ' Never was nobler finish of fine sight;  
'Twas like the coming of a shape of light;  
And every lovely gazer, with a start,  
Felt the quick pleasure smite across her heart: —  
The princess, who at first could scarcely see,  
Though looking still that way from dignity,  
Gathers new courage as the praise goes round,  
And bends her eyes to learn what they have found.  
And see, — his horse obeys the check unseen;  
And with an air 'twixt ardent and serene,  
Letting a fall of curls about his brow,  
He takes his cap off with a gallant bow;  
Then for another and a deafening shout;  
And scarfs are waved, and flowers come fluttering out;  
And, shaken by the noise, the reeling air  
Sweeps with a giddy whirl among the fair,  
And whisks their garments, and their shining hair.
- ' With busy interchange of wonder glows  
The crowd, and loves his brilliance as he goes. —  
The golden-fretted cap, the downward feather, —  
The crimson vest fitting with pearls together, —  
The rest in snowy white from the mid thigh:  
These catch the extrinsic and the common eye:  
But on his shape the gentler sight attends,  
Moves as he passes, — as he bends him, bends, —  
Watches his air, his gesture, and his face,  
And thinks it never saw such manly grace,  
So fine are his bare throat, and curls of black, —  
So lightsomely dropt in, his lordly back —  
His thigh so fitted for the tilt or dance,  
So heaped with strength, and turned with elegance;  
But above all, so meaning is his look,  
Full, and as readable as open book;  
And so much easy dignity there lies  
In the frank lifting of his cordial eyes.
- ' His haughty steed, who seems by turns to be  
Vexed and made proud by that cool mastery,  
Shakes at his bit, and rolls his eyes with care,  
Reaching with stately step at the fine air;

And now and then, sideling his restless pace,  
 Drops with his hinder legs, and shifts his place,  
 And feels through all his frame a fiery thrill :  
 The princely rider on his back sits still,  
 And looks where'er he likes, and sways him at his will.'

We pass over Canto the second, or '*The Bride's Journey to Rimini*;' and Canto the third, or '*The Fatal Passion*.' They offer many specimens of poetical energy and feeling: but, after the extracts which we have already made, we must confine ourselves to the fourth Canto, or '*How the Bride returned to Ravenna*.'

From this portion we quote the introductory passage, as exhibiting the writer's peculiar merits and defects in a strong degree:

- ' It has surprised me often, as I write,  
 That I, who have of late known small delight,  
 Should thus pursue a mournful theme, and make  
 My very solace of distress partake.  
 And I have longed sometimes, I must confess,  
 To start at once from notes of wretchedness,  
 And in a key would make you rise and dance,  
 Strike up a blithe defiance to mischance.  
 But work begun, an interest in it, shame  
 At turning coward to the thoughts I frame,  
 Necessity to keep firm face on sorrow,  
 Some flattering, sweet-lipped question every morrow,  
 And above all, the poet's task divine  
 Of making tears themselves look up and shine,  
 And turning to a charm the sorrow past,  
 Have held me on, and shall do to the last.
- ' Sorrow, to him who has a true touched ear,  
 Is but the discord of a warbling sphere,  
 A lurking contrast, which though harsh it be,  
 Distils the next note more deliciously.  
 E'en tales like this, founded on real woe,  
 From bitter seed to balmy fruitage grow :  
 The woe was earthly, fugitive, is past ;  
 The song that sweetens it, may always last.  
 And even they, whose shattered hearts and frames  
 Make them unhappiest of poetic names,  
 What are they, if they know their calling high,  
 But crushed perfumes, exhaling to the sky ?  
 Or weeping clouds, that but a while are seen,  
 Yet keep the earth they haste to, bright and green ?'

The duel between the brothers is an animated scene, and of so dramatic a description that it is likely to suggest to some contemporary playwright the idea of adapting '*The Story of Rimini*' to the stage: though the nature of that story is not  
 inviting



inviting to the purpose. "The Orphan" itself can scarcely be welcomed in our theatres by an audience of feeling and delicacy; and even the acting of Miss O'Neill has lately failed to make it permanently a favorite. The death of the frail beauty must excite compassion, as it is managed by the present poet; and the sending back of the body to the unfortunate but guilty father, who prepared the way to the catastrophe by misleading his daughter in the first instance, is a well-imagined, or, if real, a very fortunate conclusion to the tale.

We cannot dismiss this publication without our repeated tribute of applause to the strong interest excited by the author in the fate of his characters, and to his natural and original style of poetic composition: but we must now recur to the less pleasing duty of criticism, and point out some instances of inadmissible freedom in rhythm and phraseology. — We had better, perhaps, *preface* our remarks of this nature by a rather long extract from the *preface* of Mr. Hunt; an extract which contains *much* that we approve; though, by acting too freely on his own principles of poetical composition, good as those principles seem to be, Mr. H. appears to us to have been guilty of some aberrations from pure taste, which a more judicious exemplification of his theory would have avoided.

‘ I suppress a good deal which I had intended to say on the versification of the poem, — or of that part of it, at least, where, in coming upon household matters calculated to touch us nearest, it takes leave, as it were, of a more visible march and accompaniment. I do not hesitate to say, however, that Pope and the French school of versification have known the least on the subject, of any poets perhaps that ever wrote. They have mistaken mere smoothness for harmony; and, in fact, wrote as they did, because their ears were only sensible of a marked and uniform regularity. One of the most successful of Pope's imitators, Dr. Johnson, was confessedly insensible to music. In speaking of such men, I allude, of course, only to their style in poetry, and not to their undisputed excellence in other matters. The great masters of modern versification are, Dryden for common narrative, though he wanted sentiment, and his style in some respects was apt to be artificial, — Spenser, who was musical from pure taste, — Milton, who was learnedly so, — Ariosto, whose fine ear and animal spirits gave so frank and exquisite a tone to all he said, — Shakspeare, whose versification escapes us, only because he over-informed it with knowledge and sentiment; — and, though the name may appear singular to those who have not read him with due attention to the nature of the language then existing, Chaucer, — to whom it sometimes appears to me, that I can trace Dryden himself; though the latter spoke on the subject without much relish, or, in fact, knowledge of it. All these are about as different from Pope, as the church organ is from the bell in the steeple, or, to give him

him a more decorous comparison, the song of the nightingale, from that of the cuckoo.

‘ With the endeavour to recur to a freer spirit of versification, I have joined one of still greater importance, — that of having a free and idiomatic cast of language. There is a cant of art as well as of nature, though the former is not so unpleasant as the latter, which affects non-affectation. But the proper language of poetry is in fact nothing different from that of real life, and depends for its dignity upon the strength and sentiment of what it speaks. It is only adding musical modulation to what a fine understanding might actually utter in the midst of its griefs or enjoyments. The poet therefore should do as Chaucer or Shakspeare did, — not copy what is obsolete or peculiar in either, any more than they copied from their predecessors, — but use as much as possible an actual, existing language, — omitting of course *mere* vulgarisms and fugitive phrases, which are the cant of ordinary discourse, just as tragedy-phrases, dead idioms, and exaggerations of dignity, are of the artificial style, and yeas, verily, and exaggerations of simplicity, are of the natural. The artificial style, it is true, has its beauties, as some great poets have proved; but I am here speaking of the style that is most beautiful; and those poets, it is to be observed, were not the greatest. Of the style to which I allude, exquisite specimens, making allowances for what is obsolete, are to be found in the Canterbury Tales of Chaucer, and his Troilus and Cressida; and you have only to open the first books of Pulci and Ariosto to meet with two charming ones, the interview of Orlando with the Abbot, in the Morgante Maggiore, (canto 1. towards the conclusion,) and the flight of Angelica, her meeting with Rinaldo’s horse, &c. in the Orlando Furioso. Homer abounds with them, though, by the way, not in the translation; and I need not, of course, warn any reader of taste against trusting Mr. Hoole for a proper representation of the delightful Italian. Such versions, more or less, resemble bad engravings, in which all the substances, whether flesh, wood, or cloth, are made of one texture, and that a bad one. With the Greek dramatists I am ashamed to say I am unacquainted; and of the Latin writers, though Horace, for his delightful companionship, is my favourite, Catullus appears to me to have the truest taste for nature. But an Englishman need go no farther than Shakspeare. Take a single speech of Lear’s, such for instance as that heart-rending one,

‘ I am a very foolish fond old man,  
Fourscore and upward, &c.

and you have all that criticism can say, or poetry can do.’

Without entering into the wide field of argument opened by this *unqualified* praise of even the best specimens of poetical language in Shakspeare; and without touching on the indiscriminate and overcharged panegyric which attributes ‘ all that poetry can do,’ and (still more indefensibly) ‘ all that criticism can say,’ to one pathetic passage; we shall merely observe

observe that we agree with the author in his opinion of the great superiority of Dryden over Pope as a master of *Harmony*; and we beg to refer our readers to the numerous articles in the M.R. in which this doctrine (now gaining ground more generally) has been maintained for some time past, on all due occasions. We accord also in opinion with Mr. Hunt, in a portion of what he says on the subject of poetic language in general: but, as we disapprove some of his degrading phrases applied to Pope, even as a versifier, so also we deny the justice of his critical canon, 'that the proper language of poetry is in fact *nothing* different from that of real life.' We had rather follow Gray's example than Johnson's opinion on this subject; and we contend that the reverse of Mr. Hunt's assertion is much more generally true than the assertion itself. The best *descriptive* passages in his own 'Story of Rimini' completely bear us out in this argument. Were he to *talk* in such language, he would be considered as a much less natural or sensible character than he wishes; and yet, in poetry, such language has constituted one of his chief claims to public attention. The fact seems to be that all *narrative* poems will furnish occasions for the plainest *conversation*-style; a style which Homer and Virgil, in obedience to their own good taste, necessarily adopted in sundry passages of their divine poems:—but they must have rejoiced surely, and every one of their worthy followers must rejoice, when these necessary evils of *conversation*-composition have been surmounted; and when, from the uninteresting and tame detail of facts in their own concise and appropriate language, they are enabled to expatiate in scenes in which fancy and feeling alike demand a more figurative and more passionate expression. It is not the mere 'addition of musical modulation to what a fine understanding might actually utter in the midst of its griefs or enjoyments,' which constitutes poetry. This definition may suffice for the poetical language of some *dramatic* passages, in which the passion of the speaker is mingled with or arises from some immediate action: but, even here, if the close copyist of human nature be not cautious and delicate and select in his imitations, he will grossly fail; and, after all, if nothing be added to the language of such passages from the *ideal pathetic* of the poet, the highest charm will be wanting to the whole. In *descriptive* passages, this is still more obviously true.

We could dilate, with pleasure, on this subject: but enough has been said, we hope, to lead the reflecting reader into an opinion contrary to that lowering and debasing sentiment of the present author, which we have quoted above. We use  
these

these epithets as appropriate to any theory which tends to bring down poetry from its antient, retired, and lofty station to the level of ordinary life and society.

We wish that Mr. Hunt had attended to his own precept of '*omitting mere vulgarisms*' in diction; since he then would have spared us the unwelcome task of quoting the same or at least similar offences from '*The Story of Rimini*.' What classical author will sanction them? We doubt even whether his favourite Italians (including the wild Dante himself, from whom he borrowed the subject of his tale,) would countenance him in *such familiarities*, to say the least of them: but, in these matters of taste, we may perhaps not win every suffrage; particularly in an age which gives unprecedented licence to all the *vagaries* of versification.

Before we specify the faults to which we chiefly allude, let us observe that, in the heroic couplet, no English writer of any note has introduced that number and variety of Hudibrastic double endings to his rhymes, which Mr. Hunt unblushingly adopts on the most improper occasions. We have here, on all subjects, and in all circumstances, such terminations as

springing }	brother }	pleasure }
singing }	other }	measure }
together }	confusion }	to him }
weather }	conclusion }	through him }
glory }	measure }	woman }
story }	treasure }	common }
flushes }	pleasure }	many }
blushes }	places }	any }
being }	faces }	sorrow }
agreeing }	coming }	morrow }
posies }	humming }	gladness }
roses }	feeling }	madness }
faces }	healing }	blisses }
graces }	brother }	kisses }
upon it }	another }	brother }
bonnet }	graver }	other }
champing }	favour }	graces }
tramping }	ready }	faces }
feather }	steady }	another }
together }	feature }	brother }
dwelling }	creature }	blessing }
compelling }	merit }	possessing }
creature }	spirit }	contemplation }
nature }		desolation }
REV. JUNE, 1816.	L	sporting -

sporting }	sorrow }	sorrow }
courting }	morrow }	morrow }
reviewing }	squire }	descending }
pursuing }	nigher }	attending }
hawking }	uncovered }	friars }
talking }	hovered }	squires }
resenting }	dissemble }	reading }
repenting }	tremble }	proceeding }
sleeping }	sensation }	parted }
peeping }	humiliation }	broken-hearted }
emerging }	started }	scorning }
virgin }	departed }	morning }
throwing }	assistance }	morrow }
glowing }	distance }	sorrow }

We have taken the trouble of forming this long list of *Hudibrastic heroics*, for the sake of nipping in the bud a practice so fraught with ridiculous consequences to serious poetry. In the case of a writer of less poetical *promise* (if we may so express ourselves) than Mr. Hunt, we should have been satisfied with referring to so glaring a fault, or with adducing a few instances of it: but here we have judged it right to bring the whole "head and front of the offending" together at once before the reader, that he with us may bear witness against Hudibras, Heroism, and Hunt, in the questionable shape in which they now appear.

We proceed to other irregularities.

' Ah — yes — no — 'tis not He — but 'TIS THE SQUIRES  
Who go before him as his pomp requires.'

' *A pin-drop silence*' is a milliner's phrase. — ' *We'll pass the followers*' is a good dramatic freedom, perhaps: but it will not be admitted even in the *infant* epic. — 'The multitude *who got* in clumps' is vulgar. — 'The truth was this' led us to expect "*facts are facts*," shortly following.

' *The truth was this* — The bridegroom had not come,  
But sent his brother proxy in his room.'

Quaint and cool enough.

' And all great pity thought it to divide  
Two that seemed made for bridegroom and for bride.'

Clear and concise.

' *The proxy*, turning midst the general hush,  
Kissed her meek lips, *betwixt* a rosy blush.'

Agreeable.

' He kept no reckoning with his sweets and sour.  
*He'd hold* a sullen countenance for hours.'

Disagreeable.

' Some

' Some tastes there were indeed, that would prefer  
Giovanni's countenance as the martialler.'

There is a road between Ross and Gloucester, called "*The Devil's Back Bone*," which we conceive to be smooth in comparison with the preceding couplet.

' Yet there was nothing in it one might call  
A stamp exclusive or professional.'

We shall not *hunt* out any more foibles. — Let the author weigh our praise and blame, and be admonished by the balance.

ART. IV. *Sermons*, by Archibald Alison, LL.B., &c. Vol. II.  
8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

IT is not often that we have occasion to notice the writings of an author who, in so short a period of time, appears to have attained so elevated a rank in the public estimation as Mr. Alison has acquired; nor is it from the casual and unsatisfactory testimony of a few readers of sermons, or compilers of theological tracts, that he has gained this "well earned fame," but from the unanimous and stable suffrages of all the true friends of religion. The most orthodox have been compelled to admire even when they have been searching for opportunity to censure; while zealous religionists have been carried away by his devotion, and deliberate reasoners have been roused by his eloquence. Apparently, indeed, this author's style of writing is singularly adapted to find admirers among persons of every variety of religious persuasion. In his masterly hands, religion is always the messenger of mercy: her lessons at all times accord with the natural feelings of the human heart; and her office is to console and enlighten, to encourage and forewarn her hearers.

We had the pleasure of noticing Mr. Alison's first volume of sermons in our Number for December 1814, p. 352.; and the impression left on our minds by an attentive perusal of those discourses induced us to adjudge to their author, if not equality, at least proximity of rank with his celebrated compatriot Dr. Hugh Blair. Indeed, with all the same graces of language, and the same exquisite powers of persuasion, which were so peculiar to the Professor, the present writer has surely less artifice, and less appearance of studied elegance; and, if he does not proceed *pari passu* with his rival in classical terseness and sententiousness of style, he surpasses him, we think,

in glowing animation and brilliancy of oratory. We have indeed heard it said that the sermons of Alison, though admirable as a specimen of the beauties of language, and as a display of intellectual endowment, are by no means calculated to serve as models for imitation to inexperienced divines: but it should be remembered that he wrote with the view of teaching others not how to write but how to act: not of instructing his youthful brethren in the art of composing sermons, but of impressing on the minds of all his hearers the sanctity of gospel-truth, and the imperious obligations of moral duty. He seems very wisely to have considered that, though minds which nature has formed for serious reflection may not require truth to be pourtrayed otherwise than in her native unadorned beauty, yet it is proper that to the generality of mankind she should appear with the accompaniments of elegance and grace, and arrayed, not indeed in ornamental superfluities, but in the chaste habiliment of eloquent persuasion. The age, we fear, has elapsed, in which the piety of the heart was alone sufficient to enkindle and keep alive the attention of the understanding; and in which the simple statement of sound but unpolished reasoning was considered as the only requisite for obtaining assent to the grand doctrines of our religion.

We must hasten, however, to the analysis of the volume before us, which consists of twenty-three discourses on the following subjects: i. and ii. On Religious Education. — iii. iv. and v. On the Lord's Prayer. — vi. On the Example of our Saviour's Piety. — vii. On the Evidence which arises from the *Nature and Character* of the Gospel. — viii. On the Evidence which arises from the *Progress* of the Gospel. — ix. On the Evidence which arises from the Jewish Revelation. — x. On the Evidence which arises from the Accomplishment of Prophecy. — xi. On the Love of Excellence. — xii. On the Dangers of moral Sentiment, when not accompanied with active Virtue. — xiii. On the moral Dangers of the Society of great Cities. — xiv. On the Importance of Religious Example. — xv. On the Importance of the Education of the Poor. — xvi. On Instability of Character. — xvii. On Stability of Character. — xviii. xix. and xx. On the Parable of the Prodigal Son. — xxi. On Repentance before Heaven. — xxii. On the Power of Christian Faith. — xxiii. On our Saviour's Ascension.

From this statement, it will be seen that the subjects of the present set of sermons are more invariably of a religious nature than many of those which we had occasion to notice in the preceding volume. Greatly as we were struck at the time  
by

by the display of eloquence, which many of the author's politico-religious exhortations contained, it appeared to us that their places might, in a few instances, have been advantageously supplied by others, equally animating, on any of those more vitally important topics which are diffused over the vast field of theology. Repetition, we think, is the principal and perhaps the only fault to be remarked in Mr. Alison's writing. Interesting as is the juvenile part of the audience at the Cowgate Chapel, we are rather too frequently reminded of these "*laddies of Caledonia*," going and coming from home to school, and from school to home, at the stated periods of term-time and vacation; and we have also occasionally too much repetition of the same turn of phrase, and the same scriptural allusions. These, however, are blemishes of a very minor cast, and amply redeemed by the solid excellences of every kind which pervade the whole body of the work. On the important subject of religious education, and the necessity of making scriptural studies a prominent feature in every seminary of instruction, Mr. Alison is particularly happy:

' There is no book (as you all must have observed) so acceptable even to "the little children," as that which records the history of Jesus Christ, and the incidents of his life. The plainness of the language, — the familiarity of the events, — the progressive interest of the story, — and the simplicity of the principal personages, are all adapted to the character of their minds; and lead them on to truth, in a way so artless and unpretending, that they are unconscious of any thing else but interest in the narration. It is still more remarkable, that there is no character so intelligible or so affecting to the infant mind, as that of their Saviour. Into the character of those whom the world calls great, they do not and cannot enter. But the character of the Saviour of the world is one which they understand, I believe, much better than the world itself. Its simplicity accords with what they feel within themselves; its goodness with what they as yet believe of the world around them. In his wisdom there is no little pretension, — in his actions there is no little effort, — that they approach him with affection like one of themselves; and though they read the story of his sufferings with tears, they are tears that are mingled with admiration, and which dry up in exultation, when they witness his triumph over death, and over all the power of his enemies. "Suffer the little children to come unto me," it is never to be forgotten, are his own pathetic and paternal words. They signify, that "the little children" are dear to him, and that He is acceptable to them. They signify, that while the waters of baptism are poured even upon the cradle of humanity, the moment they leave it, the arms of a friend and of a Saviour are prepared to receive them. — They signify, but too prophetically, that times would come when the folly and the presumption of man would find out other and artificial modes of education, when the young would not be "suffered," but "forbid to



come to Him;" and they seem even to supplicate the Christian parents of every future age, to "suffer their little children to come to him," with the earnestness of a dying father, who fears that his children may fall into weaker and unwise hands.'

In the second discourse on the same subject, the author divides religious instruction into two branches: the object of the one being to inculcate the love of God, and that of the other the love of our neighbour. Having before spoken, in general terms, of the importance of fixing impressions during the season of infancy, he now supposes the mind to have made some progress, and reason some advancement. He therefore recommends that the understanding should be forthwith directed towards the attributes and perfections of the Almighty Father of the human race; that the doctrines of man's fall from innocence and happiness should be gradually developed; that the mercies of the Divinity should be shewn in the beneficent purpose of redemption; and that all the means should be clearly illustrated, which the Almighty employed for the accomplishment of this great design. On the principle of a rational belief in the superintendence of an all-powerful agency, and on the basis of that love with which such a belief must fill the mind, Mr. Alison lays the foundation of the love which we are bound to exercise, as well as feel, towards every creature of the same system:

'If they have approached with joy the throne of the universal Father, teach them, then my brethren, in the first place, that it is their first duty to love every thing that He hath made; that every form which bears "the image of God," is their brother, and that every being that is dear to Him, ought also to be dear unto them. — If they have looked with adoration at that perpetual care by which the universe is maintained, "and in which every thing lives and moves, and has its being;" tell them that they also are members of this mighty system; that on them too some beings depend for happiness or joy; and that the noblest career they can run is that of being "fellow-workers with Him" in the welfare of his creation. — If their hearts throb with gratitude for all the blessings which His bounteous hand has shed upon them, tell them that there are blessings also given them to bestow; that life has every where tears which their hands may wipe away; and that the path of man, on which Heaven looks down with most approving joy, is that of those "who are merciful as God is merciful."

'If, in another view, they follow with glowing hearts the history of their Lord, remind them, that it was not in scenes of splendour or of indulgence that his life was passed; that it was not "to be ministered unto" that he came, "but to minister;" — to heal the sick, — to relieve the poor, — to comfort the afflicted, — to instruct the ignorant, — to suffer for the wretched. Tell them, that it is through such scenes their lives also must pass; and that, go where they will, they will find the sick to heal, the poor to relieve,

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the afflicted to comfort, the ignorant to instruct, and the wretched to console. Tell them, that for this also He came, "that he might leave them an example, that they should follow his steps;" and that the purest prayer which they can offer in the morning of life to Heaven, is, "that the same mind may be in them, which was in Christ Jesus."

We wish to render ample justice to the great merit of that part of Mr. Alison's volume which treats of the evidences of Christianity. The convincing weight of testimony, which he has here compressed into the narrow compass of four discourses, proves him to be so powerful a champion in the good cause, and so able a defender of the faith "which was once delivered to the saints," that it might be desirable for him to enlist himself among the refuters of those specious fallacies, with which scepticism has so frequently endeavoured to conceal and overwhelm the truth. Numerous as have been the answers to the subtle sophistry of Hume, and irresistible as have been the strictures on the more injurious because more seducing writings of Gibbon, we should still welcome to the Christian banners the co-operating aid of a faithful warrior, who rivals the one in closeness of argument and the other in animation of language. We should recommend it to enthusiastic admirers of "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," to contemplate with unprejudiced attention the strongly contrasting picture which Mr. Alison has here drawn in opposition to their favourite theory. The sermon 'On the Evidence arising from the Progress of the Gospel' is particularly conclusive on this head. After having observed that the principles of religious belief are, from the constitution of the human mind, the least susceptible of change,—and that, with one solitary exception, the only means, hitherto successfully employed to propagate new systems of religious faith, have been the force of conquest and the arm of desolation,—the author proceeds to expatiate on the very different manner in which the kingdom of Christ "increased and multiplied;" on the primitive obscurity whence it sprang; and on the silent and gradual steps with which it emerged from its humble cradle, after every thing human appeared to have decided on its extinction, after its author had expired on the cross, and the disciples, who had been witnesses of the afflictions of their master, seemed to be hastening to the same termination of their own.

'It began in the deepest obscurity;—in a country despised by all the rest of mankind, and among the lowest people of that country. The author of it appeared to expire as a traitor and a malefactor, and his opinions seemed, and were designed, to be buried in his grave. What remained of them was confided to the care of a few

simple and ignorant men ; so very ignorant indeed, that, from their own artless avowal, they knew nothing of the great designs which they were to execute, until they were directed by a wisdom above their own.

‘ The country which had conducted their Master to the cross naturally rejected and persecuted his disciples. The countries by which they were surrounded were at the height of their civilization and improvement, and had long looked down upon what they considered the superstitions of Judea, with indignation and contempt. In both these countries, however, the apostles of the Gospel sought for converts ; and in both these countries they found them. Called upon to carry “ the glad tidings ” which they had received, to every race and nation of mankind, they met every where some who welcomed them. In their own age, and before they had sealed their faith with their blood, they saw the religion of the Gospel dawning among every surrounding people. Amid all its humility and all its dangers, there was something in it which carried conviction to the souls of men ; which dissolved the tenacity with which they were accustomed to adhere to the opinions of their forefathers ; and which made the old fabric of superstition fall, as if by enchantment, before the humble preaching of “ the fishermen of Galilee.” ’

If the preacher had added to this chain of evidence a discourse on the miracles wrought by our Saviour himself, we should have considered it as even more complete than it is : not, indeed, that we find any want of connection in his arguments, or any feebleness in the body of demonstration which he has here brought forwards in support of truth, but that, where every thing is so ably and so satisfactorily said, the omission of any one point is the more perceptible, and becomes a source of regret in proportion to its moment.

The fourteenth sermon, ‘ On the Importance of Religious Example,’ appears to have been composed and preached on an occasion of a most melancholy nature, ‘ *the execution of three young men (all of them under the age of twenty) for robbery and murder, on the night of the 1st of January 1812.* ’ — The instructive lessons, which the author draws from this sad occurrence, may be read with advantage, and cannot but be contemplated with approbation :

‘ It is a lesson to the young, to teach them, by the most terrible of all proofs, how soon innocence can be lost ; how rapid the progress of guilt is in the soul which has once admitted it, and to what atrocity of crime even the youthful heart may arrive, when it has once surrendered itself to the dominion of any sin. — It is a lesson to the instructed and the educated among us, to teach them, that knowledge and accomplishments alone are vain ; — that the understanding may be improved while the heart remains barren and unprofitable ; — and that unless the master-spring of religion is awakened into activity, the acquisitions of learning and of knowledge

ledge may only add strength to guilt, and malignity to crime. — It is a lesson, lastly, to the laborious and the active among us, to teach them, that something more is wanting than the mere wisdom of the world, to give either usefulness or honour to the character of man; that if the ambition of the soul be confined to time alone, no lofty views, no generous virtues, will ever spring in it; and that it is possible for the men of the world to “rejoice in their youth,” while all the honours of time, and all the hopes of immortality are lost for ever.’

In bringing our remarks to a close, we would endeavour to draw the attention of our readers to the three discourses which are inserted towards the conclusion, ‘On the Parable of the Prodigal Son.’ We have seldom if ever met with any composition more truly affecting, or more exquisitely pathetic, than the animated picture, which is here pourtrayed, of domestic affliction and parental tenderness. The happy illustration of the parable, and the adaptation of it to the ordinary habits of mankind and the general nature of the moral government of God, are written in Mr. Alison’s best and most forcible style; indeed, we may say, in a style peculiarly his own. The hasty indiscretions of youthful levity, flying from the shelter of parental solicitude, and squandering, “in a far country,” the goods which a father’s affection had bestowed, are well assimilated to that general forgetfulness of duty, and that precipitate desire of enjoyment, which constitute in every age the prevalent characteristics of juvenile conduct:

‘It is thus every where, my brethren, that the “substance” which the universal Father has given, that the powers and capacities of the human soul, are wasted in the progress of sin; — that health is lost in profligacy, and time in idleness, and beauty in depravity; — that rank and affluence are made the ministers of folly or of vice; — that learning is abused to the purposes of sophistry and scepticism; — and that the mighty minds which Heaven seems at times to have created for the moral or intellectual progress of human kind, stoop to the momentary ends of conquest and ambition; and, for the indulgence of their own hour of fame, purchase the everlasting execration of mankind. These are the prominent vices of the world; — but let us look to it where we will, we shall ever find that its beginning is like that of the younger son of the parable — in leaving the guidance and the counsels of our father; — in believing that the goods we inherit are possessions, and not gifts; — and in conceiving that life itself is a scene of enjoyment, and not of moral and religious duty.’

The wisdom of the elder son, on the other hand, forms the pleasing exception to the general and melancholy view of human depravity; reminding us that, though folly and disobedience be the prevailing bias of the human heart, there are yet many in whom a spirit of submission to legitimate controul,

troul, and more particularly to the salutary admonitions of a father's will, operates as the most powerful incentive to virtue. The bounty of the father, in giving to his son the blessings which he thus lavishly squandered, is compared to that heavenly magnificence with which the Almighty apportioned his treasures even to the least deserving of his creatures: while the contrition of the prodigal, his return home, the joy of the father, the affection with which he welcomes and the tenderness with which he forgives his child, and above all perhaps the exultation not only of the parent but of the whole household in preparing for penitence the reward of glory, afford Mr. Alison the materials for a combination of striking beauties both of language and of sentiment. We cannot deny ourselves the satisfaction of making a brief extract from the concluding considerations:

‘ The last thing that is observable in this view of the parable, is its conclusion. It is for this divine conclusion that it was at first spoken. It was for your benefit, my brethren, (for the benefit of every individual among you, and among every congregation of fallen men,) that it was written; and the heart which is not affected by the words of our Saviour, cannot be affected by the language of man. It concludes, not as man would have concluded it, with the simple account of his pardon and his reception; — it tells us a great deal more; it tells us, in truth, of things which the “heart of man durst not conceive,” and which none but the Son of God had the power and the capacity to reveal; — it tells us of the “robe,” which signifies honour, and the “ring,” which implies glory; — it tells us of the gratulation of the whole family on the recovery of one whom they thought they had “lost;” — but, far more than all, it tells us of the joy of the Father himself, when he once more held this returning son within his arms, and felt the throb of penitence in his heart, and found him again alive to love, to duty, and to happiness.

‘ The parable, my penitent brethren, is indeed addressed to you, but the application of the conclusion I must leave to yourselves. The truth is, that I dare not; that the views it suggests are too mighty to admit of explanation in mortal language; and that the representations which our Saviour thus gives of the tender mercy of the Great Father of the penitent, and of the worth of the human soul, are such, that nothing belongs to creatures like us, but to bury our foreheads in the dust, and to say to our Saviour and to our God, “What is man that thou thus regardest him, or the son of man that thou thus visitest him?”’

Had Mr. Alison favoured the world with no more than these three discourses, we should have considered him as justly intitled to a very ample share of public gratitude; and if, on the whole, we view this volume as in some degree inferior to the first, we hope that the treasury of his theological writings

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is not yet exhausted, but that we shall soon be called again to a renewal of the gratification which we can never cease to feel, when genius and eloquence lend their united assistance in supporting the bulwarks of truth.

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ART. V. *Memoirs of Algernon Sydney*. By George Wilson Meadley. With an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 415. 12s. Boards. Cradock and Joy.

WE took due notice in our lxivth Vol. (N. S.) of a former composition by Mr. Meadley, we mean his life of Archdeacon Paley: a work which, though it contained several circumstances that might with propriety have been omitted, appeared to us, on the whole, to be executed with considerable merit; and the sketch now before us has a title to the commendation bestowed on its predecessor, without incurring the accompanying animadversion, at least to the same extent, the remarks and descriptions being seldom unsuitable or of too great a length. Mr. M. regrets, in his preface, that the public has not sooner possessed a full account of the life and transactions of Algernon Sydney; the meagre details of Collins having been generally adopted by subsequent writers, without much attention to the assistance that might be derived from an analysis of the contemporaneous correspondence. 'In attempting to supply this blank,' he says, 'I have spared no pains in research; and, though disappointed in my expectation of MS. documents in some quarters, I have, I trust, succeeded in obtaining some new and interesting information.' The materials which he has chiefly consulted are the documents remaining at the family-seat of Penshurst in Kent; the papers of Sir William Williams relating to Sydney's trial; several vouchers in the State-Paper-Office, and the printed news-papers, journals, and histories of the times.

Algernon Sydney, born in 1622, was the second son of Robert, Earl of Leicester, who was nephew of the well-known Sir Philip Sydney. Lord L. being appointed ambassador at the French court in 1636, his family went with him to Paris; where, and subsequently in Italy, Algernon had an opportunity of receiving a liberal education. Being destined for the army, an application was made to the Prince of Orange for a troop of horse for him in the Dutch service: but, this not being obtained, a similar appointment was procured for him at home, and in 1641 he went, in a military capacity, to Ireland.

The hostilities between the King and the Parliament breaking out in the next year, Lord Leicester adhered to his royal master,

master, but took no part in the contests, and lived chiefly at Penshurst. After two years of service in Ireland, and some campaigning against the insurgents, Algernon was recalled, and landed, with his troop, (whether by accident, or, as is more probable, by design,) at Liverpool, which was in possession of the adherents of the parliament. The consequence was that his horses were seized by the latter, and he was sent up to London, where he determined to embrace the cause of the people; a cause to which, 'whatever might have been his former intentions, he afterward adhered with the most inflexible constancy.'

'On the 10th of May 1644, he was appointed captain of a troop of horse in the army of the Earl of Manchester, Major-general of the Eastern Association\*; and to enable him to enter on his military duties, four hundred pounds were voted by the parliament towards the payment of his arrears. He obtained the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the course of a few weeks; and, on the 2d of July, he charged, with much gallantry, at the head of his commander's regiment, in the battle of Marston Moor. Being severely wounded, and almost within the power of the enemy, he was rescued by the heroism of a soldier, who, stepping out of the ranks of Cromwell's regiment, brought him off to a place of safety, without receiving any injury himself. Sydney, enquiring the name of his deliverer, that he might reward so much courage and affection, was told that, as reward was not his object, he wished to be excused the disclosure of his name. The conduct of Sydney in this action is noticed with applause in the Journals of the day; and his wounds, which obliged him to remove to London, are mentioned in the official dispatch of his General with much regret. His health, however, otherwise suffering little, he speedily recovered.†'

In the next year, Sydney was promoted to the command of a regiment of horse, and was elected member of parliament for the town of Cardiff. In 1646, he was ordered over with his regiment to Ireland, with the flattering appointment of commander of the cavalry in that island: but the service was much impeded by a misunderstanding with Lord Inchiquin, and Sydney returned to England in 1647. In 1648 he was named governor of Dover Castle, and, on the King's

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\* The Eastern Association included the counties of Essex, Norfolk, Suffolk, Hertford, Cambridge, Huntingdon, and Lincoln.'

† Collins, 151. Comm. Jour. III. 507.

"Colonel Sydney, son to the Earl of Leicester, charged with much gallantry at the head of my lord's regiment of horse, and came off with much honour, though with many wounds, to the grief of my lord, and many others, who is since gone to London for the cure of his wounds." — *Ash's Intelligence from the Armies in the North*, No. 6.'

trial coming on, was appointed one of the commissioners. He had not, however, the odium of concurring in the final proceedings of the commission, as we learn from the following short but explicit passage in his father's journal :

‘ “ My two sons, Philip and Algernon, came unexpectedly to Penhurst, Monday 22. and staid there till Monday 29., so as neither of them was at the condemnation of the king, nor was Philip, at any time, at the High Court, though a commissioner ; but Algernon, a commissioner also, was there sometimes in the painted chamber, but never in Westminster Hall.” — Lord Leicester's Journal, January, 1648-9. MSS.’

It is proper, however, to add that Sydney, considering the king as guilty of a violation of the constitution and of the bloodshed of his subjects, approved the sentence of the court. His absence may perhaps be explained by his dislike of the haste in their proceedings, and possibly by one of those personal quarrels which occurred too often in his career. Examples of these alterations are to be found (p. 41.) in a difference with his officers in the garrison at Dover, and subsequently in a rencontre with the Earl of Oxford at the Hague.

‘ “ On Saturday last, the Lord of Oxford, and Colonel Sydney, fell out at a play here, and are gone into Flanders to fight it out, with their seconds, Colonel Gerard and Captain Clark. Sidney, they say, sent the challenge : what the occasion was we do not yet understand, nor the success. Hague, 19th Ap. 1651.” — *Mercurius Politicus*, No. 46.

‘ “ The two duellists, Oxford and Sidney, have had their quarrel taken up by some friends, who prevented them in their way to Flanders. Hague, May 12.” — *Merc. Pol.* No. 49.’

On returning to England after this bloodless dispute, Sydney became assiduous in attending to his duty in parliament, and was elected, in the end of 1651, a member of the Council of State. In this situation, he continued to act until the time came at which Cromwell deemed matters ripe for dismissing his republican co-operators, and appropriating to himself the fruits of their labours. Finding an English parliament less easily managed than his counterpart in our day found a French one, Cromwell adopted the decisive determination of expelling the members in a body from the House ; a treatment to which a man of Sydney's temper was ill prepared to submit : ‘ “ Wednesday, April 20th, 1653. It happened that Algernon Sydney sat next to the Speaker on the right hand ; the General said to Harrison, put him out ; Harrison spake to Sydney to go out ; but he said he would not go out, and sat still. The General said again, put him out : then



then Harrison and Worsley put their hands upon Sydney's shoulders, as if they would force him to go out; then he rose, and went towards the door."—Lord Leicester's Journal MSS.'

Sydney was now taught, like Carnot and others in our own time, the folly of building expectations of liberty on the promises of a military leader. He therefore retired to Penshurst; seeking to console himself, in the society of relations and the scenery of his early years, for the rude shock given to his hopes of public freedom. His father had disapproved his original secession from the royal cause, but applauded his firmness in resisting the unlawful dispersion of the parliament, as well as in declining all connection with Cromwell. In 1654, Sydney passed an interval in visiting the Hague, and in becoming acquainted with the celebrated De Witt; and his leisure, whether at home or abroad, was already given to philosophic reading and observation, several of his MSS. appearing to date from this comparatively early part of his career. At last, the death of Cromwell and the removal of his imbecile son afforded the republicans once more the hope of a free government.

' When the long parliament was restored, May 7th, 1659, Sydney returned to his post, concurring heartily in their first resolution, to secure the liberty and property of the people, without the government of a single person, kingship, or a House of Lords. On the 14th of the same month, he assisted in the election of a council of state, and resumed his place among the counsellors. —

' But scarcely was the commonwealth re-established, when the council was called upon to interfere in the affairs of the north of Europe, to mediate, in conjunction with the states-general, a peace between the Kings of Denmark and Sweden. Sydney was appointed one of the commissioners on the 5th of June, and, two thousand pounds being afterwards voted for their expenses, proceeded with his colleagues, Honywood and Boone, to the Sound, where, on the 21st of July, they were joined by Montagu, admiral of the fleet upon that station, who was included in the same commission, and immediately entered into a conference with the ministers deputed by the states.\*' —

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' \* " At the council of state," says Whitelocke, " I and Colonel Sydney, and Sir Robert Honywood, were named to go commissioners to the Sound, to mediate a peace between Sweden and Denmark. I was not willing to undertake this service, especially to be joined with those that would expect precedency of me, who had been formerly ambassador extraordinary to Sweden alone; and I knew well the over-ruling temper and height of Colonel Sydney. I therefore endeavoured to excuse myself, by reason of my old age and infirmities; but the council pressed it upon me."—*Memoirs*, 680.'

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‘ During the whole course of these proceedings, the character of the English nation was sustained by the commissioners with equal integrity and decision. Montagu, indeed, being secretly engaged to the royalists, had soon abandoned his post, and Boone being afterwards sent back to England, the most important stages of the negotiation were conducted, under very delicate circumstances, by Sydney and Honywood, with discretion, ability and zeal.’—

‘ When the treaty was concluded, Sydney proceeded to Stockholm, as plenipotentiary from the council of state, but, on the restoration of royalty in England, he declined acting as a public minister, except officially to announce the change. He was received, however, with all due respect, by the court and nobility, particularly by Prince Adolphus, brother to the deceased king. As he had been referred, in his last dispatches from the council, to the orders of the new sovereign, he thought it more becoming to remain at his post in a private capacity, than hastily to abandon his charge. He was very doubtful indeed of receiving any countenance from England, in the present posture of affairs; but he was still more afraid of being accused of precipitation, than of any evil which he might suffer from delay. “ While I am here,” said he, in a letter to his father, May 22. 1660, “ I serve England, and will, with as much care and diligence as I can, endeavour to advance its interests, and follow the orders of those who govern it.” And whilst uncertain whether even his conduct, in the mediation, might be approved, he pointed out to his father several circumstances which might be acted upon with advantage, whenever the treaty should be ratified.’

Although greatly surprized and hurt at the restoration of monarchy in England, Colonel Sydney had hopes, from the influence of Monk and from a belief in the sincerity of that officer, that a liberal course would be observed towards the persons who had been vested with public situations, or who had committed no other trespass than that of opposition to the court :

‘ “ If I do not receive new orders,” said he, in a letter from Copenhagen to his father, May 22. 1660, “ I shall return speedily home, and shall then follow that way which your Lordship shall command, and my best friends advise, as far as I can, without breaking the rules of honour or conscience, which I am sure will never be expected from me by your Lordship, nor those whose opinions I consider.” And again, from Stockholm, June 16., he resumed, “ I do not at all know in what condition I am there, nor what effects I shall find of General Monk’s expressions of kindness towards me, and his remembrance of the ancient friendship that was between us; but the Lord Fleetwood’s letters to the senate, and private persons here, mention discourses that he makes much to my advantage.” “ I am uncertain,” said he, June 23., “ how my actions and person will be looked upon at home. I hope I shall be able to give a good account of all that I have done here, and for other

other things, I must take my fortune with the rest of my companions." "The news I hear from England," continued he, June 27., "of public things, is punctual and certain enough, but my friends are so short in what particularly relates unto myself, that I can make no judgment at all upon what they say. Perhaps the truth is, they can say nothing to my advantage, and leave me to guess at the rest by public things." And, finally, after his return to Denmark, July 14., he observed, "I confess I did not think myself at all assured of being owned, or that new orders would be sent unto me; but that was rather what I guessed from the general state of things, than grounded upon what I heard from any person that I trusted, until my return hither."

Having soon received accounts, however; that Monk was acting the part of a complete courtier, and consenting to the measures pursued against his old friends, the adherents to the republican cause, Sydney determined not to return to England, and explained the motives of his conduct in a long letter to a friend, of which we shall quote some parts.

"I am sorry I cannot in all things conform myself to the advices of my friends. If theirs had any joint concernment with mine, I should willingly submit my interest to theirs; but when I alone am interested, and they only advise me to come over as soon as the act of indemnity is passed, because they think it is best for me, I cannot wholly lay aside my own judgment and choice. I confess, we are naturally inclined to delight in our own country, and I have a particular love to mine. I hope I have given some testimony of it. I think that being exiled from it is a great evil, and would redeem myself from it with the loss of a great deal of my blood. But when that country of mine, which used to be esteemed a paradise, is now like to be made a stage of injury; the liberty which we hoped to establish oppressed; luxury and lewdness set up in its height, instead of the piety, virtue, sobriety, and modesty, which we hoped God, by our hands, would have introduced; the best of our nation made a prey to the worst; the parliament, court, and army, corrupted; the people enslaved; all things vendible; no man safe, but by such evil and infamous means, as flattery and bribery; what joy can I have in my own country in this condition? Is it a pleasure to see, that all I love in the world is sold and destroyed? Shall I renounce all my old principles, learn the vile court-arts, and make my peace by bribing some of them? Shall their corruption and vice be my safety? Ah! no; better is a life among strangers, than in my own country upon such conditions. Whilst I live, I will endeavour to preserve my liberty; or at least not consent to the destroying of it. I hope I shall die in the same principles in which I have lived, and will live no longer than they can preserve me. I have in my life been guilty of many follies; but, as I think, of no meanness. I will not blot and defile that which is past, by endeavouring to provide for the future. I have ever had in my mind, that when God should cast me into such a condition, as that I cannot save

my life but by doing an indecent thing, he shews me the time is come wherein I should resign it: and when I cannot live in my own country but by such means as are worse than dying in it, I think he shews me, I ought to keep myself out of it. Let them please themselves with making the king glorious, who think a whole people may justly be sacrificed for the interest and pleasure of one man, and a few of his followers; let them rejoice in their subtilty, who, by betraying the former powers, have gained the favour of this, not only preserved, but advanced themselves in these dangerous changes. Nevertheless, perhaps, they may find, the king's glory is their shame; his plenty the people's misery; and that the gaining of an office, or a little money, is a poor reward for destroying a nation, which, if it were preserved in liberty and virtue, would truly be the most glorious in the world; and that others may find, they have with much pains purchased their own shame and misery, a dear price paid for that which is not worth keeping, nor the life that is accompanied with it. The honour of English parliaments have ever been in making the nation glorious and happy, not in selling and destroying the interest of it, to satisfy the lusts of one man.—When the innocence of my actions will not protect me, I will stay away till the storm be over-passed. In short, where Vane, Lambert, Haselrig, cannot live in safety, I cannot live at all. If I had been in England, I should have expected a lodging with them; or though they may be the first, as being more eminent than I, I must expect to follow their example in suffering as I have been their companion in acting.—I have not learnt to make my own peace, by persecuting and betraying my brethren, more innocent and worthy than myself. I must live by just means, and serve to just ends, or not at all. After such a manifestation of the ways by which it is intended the king shall govern, I should have renounced any place of favour, into which the kindness and industry of my friends might have advanced me, when I found those, that were better than I, were only fit to be destroyed.—My thoughts as to king and state depending upon their actions, no man shall be a more faithful servant to him than I, if he make the good and prosperity of his people his glory; none more his enemy, if he doth the contrary.

This letter was written from Copenhagen, a city which Sydney soon afterward left on his way to Germany and Italy; and, taking up his abode at Rome, he found the means of associating there with a number of intelligent and respectable men. His biographer has rather trespassed in this part of the work, and still more (p. 194.) in the extent to which he has carried his abstracts from the Sydney-papers: but, amid several superfluous passages, we find others of more consideration:

' Sydney was no less attentive to the manners and customs of the people, than to the practice of the court of Rome. "The skill of preserving health," said he, May 2., "is in great perfection in this place, exercised most upon old men. Little physick is used; things

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things that are cooling and desiccative are mostly chosen. Their rules are reduced to these two principal heads, a slender diet and much exercise. An old cardinal the other day told me, that in other places exercise was good, *citra sudorem*, but in Rome, by reason of the grossness of the air, it must be used *usque ad sudorem*. Besides the natural desire of living long and well, they are invited unto a more than ordinary care, by hopes of advancing their fortune; few attaining unto any great matter here until they come to be old. Cardinal Sacchetti is now in his seventy-fifth year; and doth ordinarily walk three or four miles without resting, by which means he enjoys a prosperous health, and preserves his wit fresh and clear as in his youth.'

Colonel Sydney's comfort, however, was materially abridged by the want of pecuniary means; his patrimony being much reduced by an imprudent advance to his brother-in-law, Lord Strangford; and an unfortunate difference having taken place with his father, who, in consequence, declined to come forwards to his assistance. An extract from a letter which he wrote to Lord Leicester is indicative both of the state of his circumstances and of that resolute temper which remained with him in every situation :

' If there be no reason for allowing me any assistance out of the family, as long as there is a possibility for me to live without it, I have discharged you. If those helps are only to be given to those, that have neither spirit nor industry in any thing to help themselves, I pretend to deserve none. Or if supplies are only the rewards of importunity, or given to avoid the trouble of being solicited, I think I shall for ever free you from that reason. And, as I have for some years run through greater straits, than I believe any man of my condition hath done in England since I was born, without ever complaining, I shall with silence suffer what fortune soever doth remain unto me. I confess I thought another conclusion might reasonably have been made upon what I had said, but I leave that to your Lordship's judgment and conscience. If you are satisfied in yourself, you shall not receive any trouble from me.'

The necessity of avoiding company, and the desire of turning his time to the best account, led him to quit Rome in the summer of 1662; and we have (p. 130.) a very interesting report of the profitable manner in which he passed his retirement. In 1663 he left Italy, and travelled through Swisserland, where he staid some weeks with his early friend Ludlow and his companions in exile. Proceeding thence to Brussels, his attention was for some time occupied by a proposal that he should engage in the service of Austria in a military capacity, with a body of troops raised from among his old associates in the civil war against Charles I. :

but, having no great confidence in the quarter whence this proposal proceeded,

• He became anxious to know, from some higher authority, how far the government of England was disposed to countenance the design. He consequently requested his father to make enquiry into the grounds of this proposal, and after communicating his letter to Lord Sunderland, to proceed further at his own discretion. "If there be any thing of reality in the proposition," said he, "I can ascribe it only to the desire that those in power may have to send away those that are suspected by them. They shall have their end: I will serve them in it if they please, and upon more easy terms than will be expected by others. I will undertake to transport a good strong body of the best officers and soldiers of our old army, both horse and foot. Though the obtaining of this would be a very considerable advantage unto me, and some of my friends, I do not ask it as a favour; I know neither they nor I shall receive any thing upon that account. The first that I ever did ask, and the least that I ever can ask, I mean the assurance of being permitted to live quietly a few months at Penshurst, not having been granted, I am like to make few requests for the future. But as I think that the advantage which the king expects, by ridding the land of those persons, is the motive upon which the offer was made, I believe it to be a very considerable one; for they who find themselves suspected may possibly grow unquiet; the destroying of them will be a work of time, and not without difficulty and danger; and it cannot be expected, that they will of their own accord leave their country, unless it be with some man of whom they have a good opinion, and all those are as little favoured as I am. — If it be granted, I hope to carry those who will gain honour unto the nation, wheresoever they go, and either find fortunes or graces for themselves. I doubt your Lordship will be unwilling to propose this, lest it should make the king or ministers believe, that I am upon better terms with my old companions than you would have them think me. I desire your Lordship to wave that scruple; I have credit enough with them for such a business as this is; and, if I were not thought at court to have far more than I have, they would not trouble themselves with me so much as they do. Whatsoever it is, I desire to make use of it, to carry me, and a good number of those in the same condition, so far from England, that those who hate us may give over suspecting us."

The plan, if ever seriously entertained, was soon given up by the English cabinet. In the war that ensued in 1664 between France and England, we find Sydney at Paris, conferring with the French government on the means of exciting in England an insurrection against Charles II., but withdrawing from that capital as soon as he discovered that the French had it merely in view to make him a tool for their own purposes. His removal from Paris would, at all events,

have been necessary on the restoration of peace, the ministers of Charles considering him (p. 151.) as too formidable to be allowed to remain in a situation so convenient for maintaining a correspondence with England; and many years elapsed before they would consent that he should come over to his native country to settle his private affairs. This long period was, no doubt, devoted by him to the composition of his "Discourses on Government," a work which is evidently the result of too much reading and reflection to have been performed at any other period of his career.

' After a long interval, the Earl of Leicester, declining fast in health and strength, became anxious to see his son Algernon before he died; and the influence which his grandson, the Earl of Sunderland, had acquired in the royal councils, seemed favourable to the attainment of his wish. The court of France, also, interfered in enforcing the request, and, on the application of Henry Savile, the British ambassador at Paris, an assurance of safety was procured. On obtaining the king's passport, therefore, Sydney came over to England, in the autumn of 1677, intending to return to France as soon as his chief object was accomplished, if any suspicions were entertained of his designs. The Earl of Leicester died on the 2d of November, at the advanced age of eighty-two; and, on the 7th, being still at Penshurst, Sydney gave a discharge to his Lordship's executors for the legacies bequeathed to him, amounting only to five thousand one hundred pounds. When preparing to return to his retirement, he was very unexpectedly detained: his eldest brother questioning his title to some property, which he had received from their father. He was obliged, therefore, to remain in England, during a long and vexatious suit in chancery, which finally established his claims.

' The parliament, elated with the recent marriage of the Prince of Orange to the Princess Mary, was now pressing the king to recommence hostilities against France. But Sydney, who more clearly saw the true interest of his country, earnestly dissuaded any warlike proceedings, though subjecting himself, by such conduct, to the imputation of being pensioned by a foreign power. To those, however, with whom he could speak unreservedly, he frankly declared his conviction, "that it was all a juggle, since, the two courts being in entire confidence, nothing more was intended by this shew of warfare, than to raise an army, and afterwards to keep it for training and modelling beyond sea." His long residence in France had afforded him many opportunities of unfolding the designs of that government, and the mercenary acquiescence of the English king. He was well acquainted with the agents employed in their mutual intrigues; and, towards the close of 1678, he is said to have opened a communication between Barrillon, the French ambassador, and Lord Halifax, his relation by marriage, respecting the Earl of Danby's impeachment.—

' A new parliament being convened, Sydney, who had now given up all hopes of a speedy return to the continent, from the

slow proceedings in chancery, became a candidate for the borough of Guildford, in Surrey; where the influence of the court was found too powerful to admit of his success. He was warmly supported, however, by the popular interest, amongst whom the celebrated William Penn was one of his most strenuous partizans. But, whilst encouraging his friends at the hustings, Penn was interrupted by the returning officer, and, after an unlawful attempt to administer oaths to him, compelled to leave the court.—

But, although thus violently excluded from a seat in parliament, Sydney was by no means inattentive to passing events. His sentiments on the most important transactions of this period have fortunately been preserved, in his letters to Henry Savile, to whom, notwithstanding his connection with the government, he disclosed himself without reserve. His obligation to this gentleman, for enabling him to revisit his own country, after so long an absence, was never erased from his mind; and gave rise to an intercourse highly honourable to both.—

The new parliament persisting in the prosecution of Lord Danby, the reduction of the army, and other measures of hostility to the court-system, the king was prevailed upon by Sir William Temple to dismiss his old advisers, and appoint a new council on a broad basis, in which the leaders of the popular party were included. "You will, perhaps, be surprized," said Sydney, in a letter to Savile, on the 21st of April, 1679, "to hear that yesterday the king did entirely dissolve his old privy council, and chose a new one, consisting of fifteen officers of the crown, ten lords, and five commoners; his majesty retaining unto himself the liberty of naming a president, calling such princes of the blood as should be from time to time; and the secretary of Scotland, for the time being, if he thought fit; declaring, moreover, that whenever any place should be vacant, he would name none without the advice of the council; and that the person named should be called by a letter subscribed by them all. To which he was pleased to add, that he would have no first or principal minister, no committee of foreign affairs, or cabinet council; but that in all things he would follow and rely upon their advice, next unto that of his great council, the parliament, which was also specified in the letter sent by his majesty for the calling of every one of them who are now to serve in council."

But, though pleased with the introduction of several of his friends into office, and the public good, which, if united in their counsels, they might eventually accomplish, Sydney saw too clearly the seeds of discord, in such an incongruous assemblage, to augur very sanguinely from the change. He was sufficiently aware of the suspicions to which public men are invariably exposed, on the slightest deviation from their former principles, and of the danger of endeavouring to conciliate the esteem of different parties at the same time. "I do not find," resumed he, June 2., when addressing the same correspondent, "the new privy counsellors well at ease; and am not free from fear, that, whilst they endeavour to keep fair with both parties, they may give distaste to

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both."



both." And again, on the 9th of the same month, after noticing the rumours of the day, he adds, "These suspicions go too far, and already reach some of your friends and mine, to such a degree, that counsellors are rather said to be changed than councils; and, if they do not find a way to cure that sore, at the next meeting of parliament, they will be looked on as their predecessors." The statesmen, for whose characters Sydney felt most anxiously on this occasion, were Lord Halifax, the brother of his correspondent, and the Earls of Sunderland and Essex.

'It is somewhat singular that Sydney, after so long and so intimate a connection with the adherents of the see of Rome, in other countries, should have entered warmly into the prosecution of the popish plot, notwithstanding the very doubtful evidence which alone could be adduced in its support. It is no less difficult, indeed, to reject all belief in the existence of some secret cabals among the papists, than to receive implicitly the incoherent stories, by which the popular ferment was kept up. There was probably some truth, though strangely mixed with absurdity and falsehood, in the details of this singular affair: the eagerness of the informers to enhance their own importance, and the credulity of the multitude, being alike adverse to all sober investigation. The virulence, however, with which the papists were pursued by liberal men, at this period, will appear the less surprizing, if compared with the unaccountable prejudices which still remain: when their connection with a party hostile to all public freedom has long ceased, and, after the discussions of a century, the sacred rights of conscience are far better understood.'

These proceedings were followed by a prorogation and a dissolution of the new parliament. On the issuing of fresh writs, Sydney became a candidate for the borough of Bramber in Sussex, where he was again strenuously supported by the influence of William Penn: but he was baffled, either by the exertions of the government-interest, or, as it is said, by that of his own relations, who dreaded the consequences of his impetuous temper if he were introduced into parliament, and embarked in a course of opposition to government. Though thus excluded from his seat in the legislation, he continued to live in London, and felt it difficult to refrain from an intercourse with the Opposition-party: but his age, and a knowledge of foreign countries, made him in some things recommend a course different from that which appeared in plausible colours to his ardent and inexperienced associates.

'Sydney still reprobated every idea of a war with France, convinced that, from such hostilities, in the actual situation of the country, no possible advantage could arise. He therefore justly exposed the attempts of the Dutch ambassador, to inflame the public mind by exaggerated statements, which gave, as he said, to some silly people, as silly a hope, that the peace would break, and

and the League be renewed against the French. "However," continued he, "I see no inclinations in discreet men here, to desire such a discomposure of things abroad, as should engage us to take any part in them, until our affairs are better settled at home than they are yet like to be."

Sydney afterwards resumed the subject, in alluding to the secrecy of his ministerial connections, about his brother's mission to the Hague. "I long since found," said he, "that the design of sending Henry Sydney into Holland, was like the rest of his William Temple's projects, a matter of great depth, and kept so close, that not one of them would speak to me of it; but this day was a se'night, a gentleman that came to see me, took a letter out of his pocket, newly come from Holland, wherein the whole end of his negotiations is set out very plainly; which, in short, is understood to be no more, than, under the pretence of a guarantee, to draw Holland and Spain into a league with England, which may help the Prince of Orange with an occasion of breaking the peace lately made."—

When, therefore, the design of this projected alliance was defeated by the activity of D'Avaux, the French ambassador at the Hague, Sydney was neither sorry nor surprised. He knew the strength of the republican party in the States-general, and the jealousy with which they regarded the Prince of Orange, whose proceedings he was no less inclined to view with anxiety, from his prospect of succeeding to the British throne. Nothing, in his opinion, could be more dangerous, than the success of such ill-grounded counsels, and he had repeatedly warned Lord Sunderland, and his brother Henry Sydney, of the probable event. "Although," said he, "the proposition being rejected, will certainly raise the party in Holland, which is least for the Prince of Orange, and cast it into a dependence upon France; that is less mortal unto us than a league, that would certainly have produced a rupture of the peace, renewed the war all over Europe, and exposed Flanders to be lost the first year, which this must have done; it being as certain the assistances expected from hence would have failed, as that it hath not in itself that which is necessary for its defence."—

His sentiments, therefore, on the projected alliance, coinciding with the immediate interest of the French government, it is no wonder that Barillon should avail himself of the opportunity of conciliating his favourable dispositions, as Rouvigny had attempted with Lord Russell in a preceding year: and it was no easy matter for Sydney to decline altogether the advances of a minister, whose country had afforded him an asylum in the time of need. The discovery, however, of their intercourse, as it appears in Barillon's correspondence with his sovereign, has been thought to cast a shade over his character, and bely the integrity of his mind. And yet, no evidence has been adduced to shew, that he countenanced any one of that ambassador's projects, which was hostile to the interest of his own country, or avowed a single sentiment inconsistent with his former life. Ba-

Barillon, indeed, explicitly declares, that, though exposed to suspicion from his connection with Lord Sunderland, Sydney's principles were still unchanged.

It must, however, be conceded, that the receipt of two sums of money, with which Barillon has separately charged him, admits not of an easy defence; though much, no doubt, depends on the manner in which such sums were accepted, and the purposes to which they were applied. There is, in fact, an essential difference between the mercenary hireling who betrays his country, and the man who receives money, from a quarter otherwise objectionable, at a great national crisis, and solely on a public account. But, whilst the demerit of the action arises chiefly from the motives of the receiver, no explanatory documents have hitherto appeared: Barillon simply charging Sydney with the sums in question, as a part of his secret disbursements. The ambassador, indeed, insinuates, that, having hitherto given Sydney no more money than had been expressly ordered, he had by no means satisfied his demands; but should find it easy to engage him altogether in his master's interest, by advancing a still larger sum.

As, in estimating the credibility of any single witness, every thing turns on the character and situation of the party; without disputing the general authenticity of Barillon's statements, his fidelity may be fairly questioned, in a case where he was doubly interested to deceive. He might at once be induced to enhance the importance of his own services, by including such a man as Algernon Sydney amongst his adherents; and to charge, as the price of his engagement, sums which had been otherwise appropriated: a suspicion which derives additional weight from two passages in the Letters of Madame de Sevigné, where he is said to have grown rich in his employ.\*

Or, if Sydney received money from this minister, it was doubtless for some public purpose, as he is understood to have made occasional disbursements among his own inferior partizans. Even on this less probable view of the subject, his character may be free from stain; unless it be received as an indisputable maxim, that, in resisting the oppression of an arbitrary government, it is immoral to accept of foreign aid. In the general conduct of nations, it has rarely happened, that the best purposes have been effected by the exertions of the pure and well-principled alone; and a man like Sydney should not be too harshly censured, if, in endeavouring to maintain his country's freedom, he occasionally

\* "Barillon a fait ici un grand séjour; il s'en va: — son emploi est admirable cette année; il mangera cinquante mille francs; mais il sait bien où les prendre." — *Lettres de Sevigné*, Avril 20. 1672. 8vo. 1806. ii. 209.

"Monsieur de Barillon est riche, gras, vieux, à ce qu'il dit, et regarde sans envie la brillante place de M. D'Avaux. Il aime la paix et la tranquillité au milieu de ses amis, et de sa famille, dont il est content." *Id.* Mars 21. 1689. vii. 71.

sought

ought for, or derived assistance from, less disinterested and ingenuous minds.'—

Of the arrogant pretensions of Barillon, Sydney had been long aware; and, in alluding to his mistaken views of his own influence, had spoken of him to Savile in the language of unfeigned contempt. "You know," said he, July 10, 1679; "Monsieur de Barillon governs us, if he be not mistaken; but he seems not to be so much pleased with that, as to find his *embonpoint* increased, by the moistness of our air, by frequently clapping his hands upon his thighs, shewing the delight he hath in the sharpness of the sound, that testifies the plumpness and hardness of his flesh; and certainly, if this climate did not nourish him better than any other, the hairs of his nose, and nails of his fingers, could not grow so fast, as to furnish enough of the one to pull out, and of the other to cut off, in all companies, which being done, he picks his ears with as good a grace as my Lord La." It is probable, therefore, that Sydney merely tolerated the intercourse of this minister, without entering into any of his views of policy, as they regarded the interest of France alone.

In 1681, Charles II. convened a parliament at Oxford, but found it so decidedly hostile that he dissolved it, and issued a declaration or appeal to the public. The Opposition-party sent forth an answer, of which the rough sketch is said to have come from the pen of Sydney. From this time forwards, the court pursued a course of measures which would have induced a less confident man to seek his safety in retreat: but, though Lord Shaftesbury set the example by withdrawing to Holland in 1682, Sydney laid stress on this circumstance merely as the means of removing an obnoxious character, flattering himself that the Oppositionists would succeed better without a leader of such doubtful integrity. At length the destined end of his career approached, the Rye-House Plot affording a pretence to arrest him, which was eagerly embraced by the court-party. He was brought to trial soon after sentence had been pronounced on Lord William Russell; and, though nothing criminal was substantiated against him, and the principal evidence was derived from one who had acted a cowardly and treacherous part, (Lord Howard,) he experienced from Judge Jefferies that fate which was afterward inflicted on so many innocent men. His firmness before the court, and his undaunted deportment on the scaffold, are too well known to require description on this occasion; and we need only add that his execution took place December 7. 1683, in the 61st year of his age.

Mr. Meadley concludes his memoirs by observations on Sydney's character and literary compositions; and here we must observe that the chief fault of his book, in addition to occasional

occasional differentest, is the common biographical trespass of too frequent a recurrence to panegyric on the object of the memoir. It is strange that the writers of lives pay so little attention to the example afforded by eminent authors of antiquity; who, from Homer downwards, have certainly rendered their delineations more interesting by an explicit exhibition of defects as well as of good qualities. We all know that the great failure of Virgil arises from the faultless monotony of his hero. The present volume is not, indeed, marked by dull uniformity: but the violent part of Sydney's character appears only incidentally from the complaints of others, instead of being, as it ought, frankly and directly represented by his biographer. In other respects, Mr. Meadley has acquitted himself well; giving evidence both of greater research after fact, and of more vigour in his conclusions, than we generally find in such compositions. He is a staunch *Oppositionist*, and adheres stedfastly (pp. 13. 33. 86. 89. 150.) to his text in every part of his narrative. — A portrait of Sydney, prefixed to the volume, appears to exhibit the features without the expression of his countenance.

**ART. VI.** *A View of the Relations of the Nervous System, in Health and in Disease*, containing Selections from the Dissertation to which was adjudged the Jacksonian Prize for the Year 1813, with additional Illustrations and Remarks. By Daniel Pring, Surgeon at Bath. 8vo. pp. 256. 7s. Boards. Callow. 1815.

SOME of the most abstruse parts of the animal economy are the functions of the nervous system, and the relations which they bear to the other powers of the body; and it consequently is not an easy task which the author of this inquiry has undertaken. In the prosecution of it, he has performed many experiments, and has even not been sparing of life when he has conceived that he could illustrate his subject by examining the parts of animals during the vital action: — but, in order to profit by an investigation of this kind, many requisites must be combined; such as a thorough knowledge of all that has been previously attempted or accomplished, a clear conception of the nature of the investigation in all its parts, a judicious selection of terms as well as an accurate employment of them, and, above all, a comprehensive mind, capable of embracing the general merits of a question, yet cautious in drawing inferences from partial or insulated facts. We must now endeavour to determine how far these characteristics apply to Mr. Pring and his publication.

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The work is divided into three sections, 1st, on the natural Structure, Faculties, and Relations of Nerves; 2dly, on the Diseases of Nerves; and 3dly, on the Effects of the external Injuries of Nerves. The first section consists of nine subdivisions, in which the different properties and functions of nerves and their relations to the other organs are respectively considered. After a few observations on the structure of these bodies, a reference to Sir E. Home's experiments concerning their retraction on being divided, and a brief account of Meyer's experiments on their re-production, we enter on the more abstruse subject of the connection of nerves with their centres. The author mentions the opinion which is most generally entertained on this point, that the brain is the common seat of sensation, and that the office of the nerves is to convey impressions from the extremities to this organ. On this doctrine he makes many remarks, but he comes at length to the same conclusion, and rests in it as the most natural and correct deduction from the phænomena.

The mode in which sensations excited in the nerves are conveyed to the brain is an intricate question, which has frequently exercised the ingenuity of metaphysicians and physiologists, but has always hitherto eluded their comprehension. Mr. Pring is not, however, deterred from the inquiry; and, having stated the two opinions which alone are intitled to any degree of attention, — the one that a subtile principle is super-added to the nervous matter, and the other that the particles of the nervous matter itself act as the medium of conveyance, — he says that the former idea appears to him to be confirmed, and the latter refuted, by various facts which he relates in detail. We do not think that these facts can be regarded as perfectly convincing; and, if we agree with Mr. Pring in abandoning the doctrine of vibrations, we apprehend that the rejection of this hypothesis does not necessarily establish that of the nervous fluid, which is encumbered with at least equal difficulties and contradictions.

In the fifth article, on 'the Relation between Nerves,' the subject of nervous sympathy is discussed, and Mr. P. attempts to illustrate it by experiments on living animals: but we do not think that any new light is thrown on it. — 'The Relation of Nerves with the Heart' is considered at some length; and the question is minutely examined, whether the motion of the heart be immediately dependent on the nervous influence, or whether the heart acts from its inherent power. Many well attested facts are related, of monstrous or imperfect animals, who were either entirely without a brain or had one of an unusual or defective structure, and yet no deficiency was observable

able in the action of the sanguiferous vessels. Experiments have also been made which seem still more directly to confirm this conclusion: yet there are other experiments, of perhaps equal credit and authority, which have an opposite tendency, and appear to establish the existence of a necessary connection between the powers of the nervous system and the heart. The author concludes with summing up the evidence that has been offered on both sides: but we cannot add that the result of his inquiries confers any additional certainty on it, or removes any of the difficulties in which it has so long been involved. The following sentence, which finishes the chapter, presents a fair specimen of the state of the controversy. 'We perceive by this analysis, that much has been attempted for the understanding of the mode of the action of the heart; that some of the particulars which have been investigated are still undetermined; and that many more remain which have not yet been submitted to the test of experimental inquiry.'

The 'Relation of Nerves with the Arteries' constitutes the subject of a long chapter; which, like the preceding, contains much discussion on several controverted points, statements of facts, and an account of some original experiments. On the whole, however, we must say that but little appears to be gained by all the labour that is bestowed; the language employed is deficient in accuracy; and there seems to be a want of that discrimination in the mind of the writer which is alone calculated to enlighten an obscure subject. We shall make a quotation from the concluding part of this chapter, in which Mr. Pring develops his peculiar ideas respecting the theory of inflammation.

'The direct results of that cause of inflammation by which its actions are commenced are:

'1st. The government of the caliber and action of vessels.

'2d. The maintainance or destruction of their cohesion.

'3d. The communication of an influence affecting the secretions.

'4th. The direction of every ending, which is not dependent upon hydraulical processes, of which latter no other occurs to me at present, but the ending in resolution. But the efficiency in this case is secondary, and it is not the only one.

'5th. The absorbents are influenced by the same cause; in consonance with a function which is peculiar to them, they remove the structure which is destroyed by the modification of life connected with the nerves, *in a ratio to its decomposition*: other effects may arise from the state of these vessels, but it is unnecessary to enumerate them.

'6th. All the kinds of inflammation, and all the phenomena they display, are dependent upon chemico-hydraulic agencies; to which

which is a directing principle of life, under a preternatural condition, is superadded. This is a fundamental proposition, and one from which a more systematic inquiry might properly originate.

7th. The chemical and hydraulical changes are subordinate; being regulated by a modified identity of life, as they are governed in health, whether with respect to the fluids, or the consolidated textures, by a natural identity of the same principle.

8th. The mechanical appearances are principally governed by an hydraulic operation: the chemical processes are intermediate: the function of the nerves also respects affinities, which are vastly complicated.

9th. Pain results from a modified function of the nerves, and is not dependent upon distention: this is proved by the pain which accompanies the first access of inflammation in any part of the cellular structure of the penis (as well as by many other facts), where distention by blood is not so great as is at other times sustained without pain.

10th. The generation of heat. That an actual generation of heat on the surface may take place, independent of the contiguity of red blood, is proved by this frequent fact, namely, that persons, *pale* and emaciated, reduced perhaps, as by hemorrhage from the lungs, to the last stage of life, may be affected with a dry and burning skin. If the temperature of the surface in such cases depended upon the greater contiguity of red blood, in consequence of its being urged into the extreme vessels, this condition of the vessels, in a subject whose skin is almost transparent, should be indicated by redness: on the contrary, I have observed it *pale*, and yet very hot; which proves that some order of the structure of the skin, or rather the principle allied to it, is capable of assuming a condition under which there will be a generation of heat, independent of a derivation of caloric from blood, unusually contiguous to the surface.

The second section treats on the Diseases of the Nerves, and contains two divisions, Tic Douloureux, and the Tumors of Nerves. A case of tic douloureux is detailed, in which, after a variety of remedies had been employed without advantage, the operation of dividing the nerve was performed with decisive benefit. It was suspected, however, that the cure would not be permanent; which, it was supposed, might depend on the tendency of the nerve to unite at the divided part, and thus resume not only its natural powers but even all its former morbid tendencies; and from this consideration the author was induced to propose that compression by a ligature should be substituted for the division of the part. Some experiments were then instituted for ascertaining the effects of ligatures: but the results did not appear favourable to the proposed operation. The ensuing paragraph contains the substance of the author's general conclusion on the subject:

‘ Does



‘ Does there then remain, it will be inquired, a probable resource for intercepting permanently the central communication of nerves, without the knowledge of which, the practice of surgery, in regard to this system, must remain defective? To this question I reply that I am acquainted with none; unless it should be found in some modification of the preceding attempts, or unless it should be indicated by this proposal, namely, to remove a portion (as half an inch) of the nerve, and unite the contiguous surfaces, one of which was above, and the other below, the course of the nerve, by an exclusive pressure, operating specifically upon the parts between the extremities of the nerve. As the union of the surfaces (if they could be made to unite) would take place sooner than the reproduction of the nerve; the adjoining structures may thus be made a septum, by which the re-establishment of the continuity of the nerve would be prevented, as long as this interposition might remain.’

The section on the external Injuries of Nerves includes two articles, on the Inflammation of Nerves, and on the Injuries of Nerves producing Spasms. This chapter is in the same style with the former parts of the work: it contains much theoretical discussion, with some new facts and experiments: but we discern in general the same marks of inaccurate reasoning, of vagueness in the expressions, and of obscurity in the ideas, to which we have already adverted. — The volume concludes with 33 general propositions, which are intended to exhibit an abstract of the author's physiological doctrines. They are too long for quotation, and indeed they do not appear to tend much to the advancement of the science: many of them are of a metaphysical cast; and, if put into plain language, they would approach nearly to the Stahlian doctrine, which was fashionable about a century ago.

ART. VII. *Edinburgh Fugitive Pieces*; with Letters, containing a Comparative View of the Modes of Living, Arts, Commerce, Literature, Manners, &c. of Edinburgh, at different Periods. By the late William Creech, Esq. F.R.S. Edin. To which is prefixed an Account of his Life. 8vo. pp. 372. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. &c. 1815.

**F**EW persons who have attended the progress of modern Scotch literature can be unacquainted with the name of *Creech*: by whom so many of its productions were ushered into the world, and who was himself a contributor to the press, in various ways. The world has now lost this respectable member of society; and the present volume supplies us with an account of his life, and a re-publication (with additions)

ditions) of his *Fugitive Pieces*, which first appeared in 1791, and were very briefly noticed in our xith Vol. N. S. p. 225.

William Creech was born at Edinburgh, 21st April 1745. Having lost his father during infancy, the friends of the family placed him at the excellent school of Mr. Barclay in Dalkeith, where he continued until the period for entering him at the University of his native city. Soon after his removal thither, with a view to medical studies, he became acquainted in the family of Mr. Kincaid the king's printer; attached himself as an out-door apprentice to the concern; and, having behaved very satisfactorily during the early part of his servitude, was received, on his mother's death in 1764, as an inmate in the house. After the expiration of his indentures in 1766, he went to serve as journeyman in London, and was sent during the following year for commercial purposes to Amsterdam and to Paris: whence he returned to Edinburgh in 1768, well accomplished both for his professional and his personal station. In May 1771, Mr. Kincaid separated from his old partner, (Mr. Bell,) took Mr. Creech into partnership, and, after two years, withdrew from business altogether, resigning under liberal conditions his entire trade to Mr. Creech: who from that time carried it on for forty years with eminent spirit and success. As a printer, publisher, and bookseller, his name has countersigned the passports of celebrity for various authors of his instructed and instructing country. — Attached to the politics of the court-party, and to those of Mr. Dundas in particular, Mr. Creech became in 1782 a zealous opponent of the coalition-ministry; and his first literary effort was a political squib, which consisted of a string of eleven resolutions, purporting to have emanated from a meeting of respectable citizens at Edinburgh. No such meeting had been convened, no such citizens had assembled, no such resolutions had passed; notwithstanding which, Mr. Creech advertized them without scruple in the various public news-papers. In this part of the island, we should not class this political hoax within the limits of gentlemanly hostility. The forgery of public documents has in it a contempt of veracity that is peculiarly pernicious; and, though it is here stated to have been highly successful in checking the addresses of the adverse party, it is clearly of immoral example. — As a citizen, Mr. Creech was meritoriously active in various circumstances; he promoted the institution of a Chamber of Commerce, to which he acted as secretary; he was president of a Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge in Scotland; he was an elder of the Presbyterian kirk, a member of the corporation of Edinburgh, and

and attained in 1811 the office of Lord Provost. He died at the age of seventy, in January 1815. — His conversation is said to have been highly gratifying to those who had the pleasure of his acquaintance, and was especially rich in literary anecdote. He had received at his table and had corresponded with so many authors, that he might well have rivalled Mr. Nichols in the accumulation of personal details and private memorials of the celebrated.

The works here collected, however, are not of a very elevated rank. Among them, the best are Letters containing a comparative View of Edinburgh in 1763 and in 1783: yet even these are drawn up with a locality of detail and a trivial minuteness, which render them less interesting than other similar contrasts of the last age with the present. We will give a short extract.

‘ In 1763 — People of fashion dined at two o’clock, or a little after it; — business was attended to in the afternoon. It was a common practice to lock the shops at one o’clock, and to open them after dinner at two.

‘ In 1783 — People of fashion, and of the middle rank, dined at four or five o’clock: no business was done in the afternoon, dinner of itself having become a very serious business.

‘ In 1763 — Wine was seldom seen, or, in a small quantity, at the tables of the middle rank of people.

‘ In 1791 — Every tradesman in decent circumstances presents wine after dinner; and many in plenty and variety.\*

‘ In 1763 — It was the fashion for gentlemen to attend the drawing rooms of the ladies in the afternoons, to drink tea, and to mix in the society and conversation of the women.

‘ In 1783 — The drawing-rooms were totally deserted; invitations to tea in the afternoon were given up; and the only opportunity gentlemen had of being in ladies’ company, was when they happened to *mess* together at dinner or supper; and even then, an impatience was sometimes shewn till the ladies retired. Card parties, after a long dinner, — and also after a late supper, — were frequent.

‘ In 1763 — It was fashionable to go to church, and people were interested about religion. Sunday was strictly observed by all ranks as a day of devotion; and it was disgraceful to be seen on the streets during the time of public worship. Families attended church, with their children and servants; and family-worship was

\* In 1708 — The year of the Union, 288,336 barrels of two-penny ale paid duty.

‘ In 1720 — 520,478½ barrels paid duty.

‘ In 1784 — 97,577½ barrels paid duty.

‘ This is a striking proof of the decrease of malt liquor, and of the consequent increase of the use of wine, and spirituous liquors.’

frequent.

frequent. The collections at the church doors, for the poor, amounted yearly to 1500*l.* and upwards.

' In 1783 — Attendance on church was greatly neglected, and particularly by the men. Sunday was by many made a day of relaxation; and young people were allowed to stroll about at all hours. Families thought it ungentle to take their domestics to church with them: the streets were far from being void of people in the time of public worship; and, in the evenings, were frequently loose and riotous; particularly owing to bands of apprentice boys and young lads. Family-worship was almost disused. The collections at the church doors for the poor had fallen to 1000*l.*

' In 1791 — The collections at the church doors had risen to 1200*l.* \*

' N. B. The collections above mentioned respect the established churches of the city only. — There are many chapels and meetings of different persuasions not included.

' In no respect were the manners of 1763 and 1783 more remarkable than in the decency, dignity, and delicacy of the one period, compared with the looseness, dissipation, and licentiousness of the other. Many people ceased to blush at what would formerly have been reckoned a crime.

' In 1763 — Masters took charge of their apprentices, and kept them under their eye in their own houses.

' In 1783 — Few masters would receive apprentices to stay in their houses; and yet from them an important part of succeeding society is to be formed. If they attended their hours of business, masters took no farther charge. The rest of their time might be passed (as too frequently happens) in vice and debauchery; hence they become idle, insolent, and dishonest. In 1791, the practice had become still more prevalent. Reformation of manners must begin in families to be general or effectual.

\* It may be mentioned here, as a curious fact, that, for more than half of this century, one of the smallest churches in Edinburgh † has collected more money for the poor, at the time of dispensing the sacrament, than eight other churches did upon the same occasion in 1783.

' With the best intention, a Sunday evening's sermon (by the ministers of Edinburgh in rotation) was instituted for the instruction of servants, who might have been detained from public worship during the day; but this, it is said, has been perverted by many to bad purposes, and made an excuse for idleness and vice.

' There is another evening sermon, for the common people, supported by private subscriptions, which, it is said, has been attended with beneficial effects, owing to the care and attention of the managers.

' There are two other Sunday-evening lectures, — one in the Chapel of Ease, — and one in the Gaelic Chapel; — in this last the service is in the Erse language for Highlanders.

' † The Tolbooth Church.'

' In 1791 — The wages to journeymen in every profession were greatly raised since 1763, and disturbances frequently happened for a still further increase. Yet many of them riot on Sunday, are idle all Monday, and can afford to do this on five days' labour.'

A strange satire on Rousseau's *Heloise* occurs, in the form of a chapter from the Bible: but it displays neither wit nor liberality, nor taste. Several letters against Sabbath-breaking attest the religious turn of the author: but we think that he classes some innocent recreations under prohibited customs. The abridgement of a sermon on "*Man is born to trouble*" does not originate with Mr. Creech. — The subsequent paper, intitled *Genteel Economy*, is characteristic:

' A certain lady, whose taste is equal to her economy, was under the necessity of asking a friend to dinner; the following is a bill of fare, and the expence of each dish, which was found on the carpet:

	s.	d.
' At top, two herrings,	-	0 1
Middle, one ounce and a half of butter melted,	-	0 0½
Bottom, three mutton-chops, cut thin,	-	0 2
One side, one pound of small potatoes,	-	0 0½
On the other side, pickled cabbage,	-	0 0½
Fish removed, two larks, plenty of crumbs,	-	0 1½
Mutton removed, French roll boiled for pudding,	-	0 0½
Parsley for garnish,	-	0 0½
		<hr/>
	0	7

' The dinner was served up on china, looked light, tasty, and pretty — the table small, and the dishes well proportioned.

' We hope each new married lady will keep this as a lesson; it is worth knowing how to serve up seven dishes, consisting of a dish of fish, joint of mutton, couple of fowls, pudding, vegetables, and sauce, for seven-pence.'

Some specimens of poetry are interspersed among the prose-works, of which the following epigram appears to us the best:

' *To a Gentleman who complained of having lost his Gold Watch.*

' Fret not, my friend, or peevish say  
Your fate is worse than common;  
For Gold takes wings and flies away,  
And Time will stay for no man.'

To the personal acquaintance of Mr. Creech, and to a nation peculiarly fond of voluminous biographic memorials, this book may be welcome: but we do not anticipate for it any popularity of circulation in the southern metropolis of Great Britain. The parts which seem worthiest of preservation are the letters of other persons comprehended in the correspondence.

ART.

ART. VIII. *Bertram*; or the Castle of St. Aldobrand; a Tragedy, in Five Acts. By the Rev. R. C. Maturin. Third Edition. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Murray. 1816.

WE have been induced, on several occasions, to suggest to our theatrical writers some degree of caution in their choice of a model for dramatic composition: — we have recalled to their neglectful notice the works of authors, whose style and manner would be a much more appropriate object of imitation by our present poets than those of still older bards; — we have recommended, in a word, the regular and touching melody of a Rowe, or the simple and energetic tenderness of an Otway, as safer objects of ambition to their followers than the daring and peculiar phraseology of Shakspeare and his contemporaries. In this age of the wild and the wonderful, such a recommendation will probably be liable to many cavils: but, without here entering into the various strong reasons which we could adduce in its favour, we shall merely state the fact that, as most of the imitations of the *older school* have entirely failed, it is time in common prudence to have recourse to the best examples of the *new academy*, as the guides and directors of our steps in the arduous pursuit of dramatic excellence. We shall briefly notice some of the numerous advantages which we conceive would result from such a plan, in the course of our remarks on the tragedy before us: but we have one other preliminary observation to offer.

An accusation is brought against our English theatre by Richardson, in one of his novels, which must be allowed great force by the reflecting reader. His objection is to the want of moral effect in many of our most popular plays; and it seems scarcely possible to disagree with the following propositions, which we would add to the remarks of Richardson: that, in the first place, much is to be found in and about every theatre that tends to lessen the good which may be derived from witnessing the exhibition of the purest and noblest dramas; and that, therefore, a dramatic writer, with such “appliances and means to boot” as he has to effect mischief, ought to be particularly careful how he saps the foundation of moral principle by exciting undue compassion for worthless characters, or unjust admiration of fierce and unchristian qualities. It is by far the most dangerous symptom in the literary taste of the day, because it is a symptom obviously connected with the tone of moral feeling, that our most popular poems, of all kinds, *can* yet be popular, while they deeply interest us for the most abandoned characters of both sexes; and that every crime in the decalogue should

should have been enveloped in some attributes of undefined grandeur and mysterious sublimity, which, whatever may be said to palliate the design of the describer, must in the description leave a pernicious impression on the unformed and youthful understanding. The immediate consciousness of many of our readers will, we are convinced, bear us out in our assertion; and, while it would be invidious to particularize instances, the argument can lose nothing, from that omission, with any person who is conversant with the literature of the times. The character of Milton's Satan seems, indeed, to have been the model of the hero of many of our favourite compositions; and we are persuaded that, when this is not so obviously the case in the whole outline, there are yet shades in almost all of the pictures to which we allude in which the resemblance may be traced with more or less fidelity. It is not, perhaps, so *distinct* in the false feelings and perverted reasonings of that German sensibility which "sicklied o'er the land" some years ago: but still, when we recollect the splendour thrown over adultery in some cases and stealing in others, and over uncontrolled and selfish or suicidal passions in all, we cannot be at a loss in finding the source to which we must trace the original.

We are sorry to be obliged to apply some portion of both of our introductory observations to the tragedy of '*Bertram*,' of which, as acted at Drury-Lane, we have heard so much praise. The language of this play, indeed, if not an imitation of the older models which we have noticed as dangerous to their copyists, is yet marked by many of the faults of the school in question: — it is strained, inverted, and bombastic on many occasions. The versification, also, is often rough and imperfect; and a want of *keeping*, of harmonious *colouring*, and, we fear, of just *design*, is visible throughout. We are far from meaning that the author did not as fully intend to produce a *perfectly moral* composition, as he did to produce a *perfectly poetical* composition: but we think that we have assigned the reasons of his having failed to accomplish these great objects, in the remarks which we have made above, and in their partial application to the present drama. With this caution, we shall proceed in the examination of a work which has certainly considerable merit; which in some scenes powerfully excites our interest, and in others, of a more gentle nature, draws forth the proofs of sympathy which are most welcome to any author of an appeal to our passions.

The play opens with a thunder-storm and a shipwreck. It was scarcely possible, perhaps, to avoid some little plagiarism from "*The Tempest*" in the management of such incidents.

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at the opening of a drama; and if, with Mr. Metastasio, when

‘ — in the hollow pauses of the storm  
We heard their perishing cries,’

we were inclined to add an exclamation to the passage, and to say,

“ Oh the cry did knock

Against my very heart! Poor souls! they perish’d,”

we ought rather to praise his forbearance for not following more closely, than to censure him for the imitation which is observable.

A stranger is then brought in, as rescued from the storm. He is of a most gloomy and fearful appearance, and gives no sign of any earthly emotion, until he hears that he is thrown on shore near the castle of Lord Aldobrand, adjoining to the convent of St. Anselm in Sicily. The scene then changes from this convent, where it had opened, to the castle; and, after some parley of attendants, the Lady Imogene is introduced looking at a picture; which picture, from some allusions and expressions of an unhappy import, we are led to conceive does not belong to her husband the Lord of Aldobrand. The lady soon betrays her grief to her confidante Clotilda; declaring that, although the wedded wife of another, she is and long has been in love with Bertram, who is now an exile from his country, and has dealt ‘with desperate men in desperate ways.’ Such is the heroine, and such is the hero, of the play before us. The declaration of this guilty passion is made at first under the form of a story told of another person, but at the end of it the confession is thus completed:

‘ *Clot.* Hast thou e’er seen the dame? I pray thee, paint her.

‘ *Imo.* They said her cheek of youth was beautiful  
Till withering sorrow blanched the bright rose there —  
And I have heard men swear her form was fair;  
But grief did lay his icy finger on it,  
And chilled it to a cold and joyless statue.  
Methought she carolled blithely in her youth,  
As the couched nestling trills his vesper lay,  
But song and smile, beauty and melody,  
And youth and happiness are gone from her.  
Perchance — even as she is — he would not scorn her  
If he could know her — for, for him she’s changed;  
She is much altered — but her heart — her heart.

‘ *Clot.* I would I might behold that wretched lady,  
In all her sad and waning loveliness.

‘ *Imo.* Thou would’st not deem her wretched — outward eyes  
Would hail her happy,



They've decked her form in purple and in pall.  
 When she goes forth, the thronging vassals kneel,  
 And bending pages bear her footcloth well —  
 No eye beholds that lady in her bower,  
 That is her hour of joy, for then she weeps,  
 Nor does her husband hear.

' *Clot.* Sayst thou her husband? —

How could she wed, she who did love so well?

' *Imo.* How could she wed! What could I do but wed —

Hast seen the sinking fortunes of thy house —

Hast felt the gripe of bitter shameful want. —

Hast seen a father on the cold cold earth,

Hast read his eye of silent agony,

That asked relief, but would not look reproach

Upon his child unkind —

I would have wed disease, deformity,

Yea, griped Death's grisly form to 'scape from it —

And yet some sorcery was wrought on me,

For earlier things do seem as yesterday,

But, I've no recollection of the hour

They gave my hand to Aldobrand.

' *Clot.* Blessed saints —

And was it thou indeed?

' *Imo.* I am that wretch —

The wife of a most noble, honoured lord —

The mother of a babe whose smiles do stab me —

But *thou* art Bertram's still, and Bertram's ever!

' (*Striking her heart.*)'

The crew in the vessel with Bertram (for *he* is the stranger, and the secret is easily guessed,) were not all lost, as at first supposed; and, having reached the land, they are received in the castle of St. Aldobrand by the hospitable lady in the absence of her lord. Bertram has betrayed his horrible purposes of revenge against that nobleman to the Prior of the convent; who, we think, ought to have taken some immediate steps to frustrate a design so plainly avowed, although by an apparent madman. This scene occurs in the second act, and a moon-light walk by Imogene on the ramparts follows. She is soon joined by Bertram, and a recognition takes place; in which the lady pleads the necessity of marrying Aldobrand to assist her father in his poverty. Bertram had only known Aldobrand as his public accuser and enemy before this interview.

' *Imo.* To save a famishing father did I wed.

' *Ber.* I will not curse *her* — but the hoarded vengeance —

' *Imo.* Aye — curse and consummate the horrid spell,

For broken-hearted, in despairing hour

With every omen dark and dire I wedded —

Some ministering demon mocked the robed priest,

With

With some dark spell, not holy vow they bound me,  
Full were the rites of horror and despair.  
They wanted but — the zeal of Bertram's curse.

*Ber. (not heeding her)*

— Talk of her father — could a father love thee  
As I have loved? — The veriest wretch on earth  
Doth cherish in some corner of his heart,  
Some thought that makes that heart a sanctuary  
For pilgrim dreams in midnight-hour to visit,  
And weep and worship there.

— And such thou wert to me — and thou art lost.

— What was her father? could a father's love  
Compare with mine? — In want, and war, and peril,  
Things that would thrill the hearer's blood to tell of,  
My heart grew human when I thought of thee —  
Imogene would have shuddered for my danger —  
Imogene would have bound my leechless wounds —  
Imogene would have sought my nameless corse,  
And known it well — and she was wedded — wedded —  
— Was there no name in hell's dark catalogue  
To brand thee with, but mine immortal foe's? —  
And did I 'scape from war, and want, and famine  
To perish by the falsehood of a woman?

*Imo.* Oh spare me, — Bertram — oh preserve thyself —

*Ber.* A despot's vengeance, a false country's curses,  
The spurn of menials whom this hand had fed —  
In my heart's steeled pride I shook them off,  
As the bayed lion from his hurtless hide  
Shakes his pursuers' darts — across their path —  
One dart alone took aim, thy hand did barb it.

*Imo.* He did not hear my father's cry — Oh heaven —  
Nor food, nor fire, nor raiment, and his child  
Knelt madly to the hungry walls for succour  
E'er her wrought brain could bear the horrid thought,  
Or wed with him — or — see thy father perish.

*Ber.* Thou tremblest lest I curse thee, tremble not —  
Though thou hast made me, woman, very wretched —  
Though thou hast made me — but I will not curse thee —  
Hear the last prayer of Bertram's broken heart,  
That heart which thou hast broken, not his foes! —  
Of thy rank wishes the full scope be on thee —  
May pomp and pride shout in thine adder'd path  
Till thou shalt feel and sicken at their hollowness —  
May he thou'st wed, be kind and generous to thee  
Till thy wrung heart, stabb'd by his noble fondness  
Writhe in detesting consciousness of falsehood —  
May thy babe's smile speak daggers to that mother  
Who cannot love the father of her child,  
And in the bright blaze of the festal hall,  
When vassals kneel, and kindred smile around thee,  
May ruined Bertram's pledge hiss in thine ear —

Joy to the proud dame\* of St. Aldobrand —  
While his cold corpse doth bleach beneath her towers.

‘*Imo. (detaining him) Stay.*

‘*Ber. No.*

‘*Imo. Thou hast a dagger.*

‘*Ber. Not for woman. —*

‘*Imo. (flinging herself on the ground)*

It was my prayer to die in Bertram's presence,

But not by words like these —

‘*Ber. (turning back) — on the cold earth!*

— I do forgive thee from my inmost soul —

(*The child of Imogene rushes in and clings to her.*)

‘*Child. Mother.*

‘*Ber. (eagerly snatching up the child)*

God bless thee, child — Bertram hath kissed thy child.

(*He rushes out, Clotilda enters gazing after him in terror, and goes to afford relief to Imogene.*)

‘*The curtain drops.*’

Act iii. introduces Aldobrand to the audience. He is a husband greatly to be pitied: brave, generous, open-hearted; and altogether of a superior cast to the *Altamont* of “*The Fair Penitent*.” Of the Lady Imogene, we cannot say any thing much more favourable in fact, although her language is delicate indeed compared to that of *Calista*. — After having come to make confession to the Prior, (who has thus the fairest opportunity of communicating to her his fears of Bertram, now known to him as the captain of a gang of robbers,) Imogene accedes to an appointment with her paramour, for a last interview, on the ramparts of the castle, that very evening; and, although her child (who is used as a most unconscionable clap-trap, and comes in on every occasion, yet never effectually,) interrupts them with the news of his father's return, she still perseveres in her resolution to keep this guilty appointment, and goes off exclaiming,

‘*My boy! my boy! thy image will protect me.*’

The protection, however, which the lady promised herself at the conclusion of the third act, is found perfectly vain before the commencement of the fourth; and, having said this, we have said enough to condemn an incident which has unfitted several older dramas for the stage; — which here takes place with too little preparative excuse, too little labour of seduction; — and which is also followed by too rapid consequences in its effect on the mind of Imogene.

The interview between Aldobrand and his wife is necessarily one of the most really touching scenes in the play, and the

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\* This denomination of Imogene occurs with unpleasant frequency. *Rev.*

subsequent passage is in that smoother and gentler style which we could wish to see a greater favourite with the public, or rather which we so earnestly advise our writers to adopt. We have had enough of the thunderbolts and blunderbusses of poetical composition, and really sigh for a little natural repose and refreshment. We wish, in a word, for a larger mixture of *pity*, and less of *terror*, in the sensations which our poets are desirous of exciting.

*Ald.* Why art thou thus, my Imogene, my love?

In former happier hours thy form and converse  
Had, like thy lute, that gracious melancholy  
Whose most sad sweetness is in tune with joy —  
Perchance I've been to thee a rugged mate —  
My soldier's mood is all too lightly chafed —  
But when the gust hath spent its short-liv'd fury,  
I bowed before thee with a child's submission,  
And wooed thee with a weeping tenderness.

*Imo.* (after much agitation) Be generous, and stab me —

*Ald.* Why is this?

I have no skill in woman's changeful moods,  
Tears without grief and smiles without a joy —  
My days have passed away 'mid war and toil —  
The grinding casque hath worn my locks of youth;  
Beshrew its weight, it hath ploughed furrows there,  
Where time ne'er drove its share — mine heart's sole wish  
Is to sit down in peace among its inmates —  
To see mine home for ever bright with smiles,  
'Mid thoughts of past, and blessed hopes of future,  
Glide through the vacant hours of waning life —  
Then die the blessed death of aged honour,  
Grasping thy hand of faith, and fixing on thee  
Eyes that, though dim in death, are bright with love.

*Imo.* Thou never wilt — thou never wilt on me —

Ne'er erred the prophet heart that grief inspired  
Though joy's illusions mock their votarist —  
I'm dying, Aldobrand, a malady  
Preys on my heart, that medicine cannot reach,  
Invisible and cureless — look not on me  
With looks of love, for then it stings me deepest —  
When I am cold, when my pale sheeted corse  
Sleeps the dark sleep no venom'd tongue can wake  
List not to evil thoughts of her whose lips  
Have then no voice to plead —

Take to thine arms some honourable dame,  
(Blessed will she be within thine arms of honour)  
And — if he dies not on his mother's grave —  
Still love my boy as if that mother lived.

*Ald.* Banish such gloomy dreams —  
'Tis solitude that makes thee speak thus sadly —

No

No longer shalt thou pine in lonely halls.

Come to thy couch, my love —

*Imo.* Stand off — unhand me. —

Forgive me, oh my husband ;

I have a vow — a solemn vow is on me —

And black perdition gulf my perjured soul

If I ascend the bed of peace and honour

"Till that —

*Ald.* "Till what?

*Imo.* My penance is accomplished.

*Ald.* Nay, Heav'n forefend I should disturb thy orisons —

The reverend prior were fittest counsellor —

Farewell ! — but in the painful hour of penance

Think upon me, and spare thy tender frame.

*Imo.* And dost thou leave me with such stabbing kindness?

*Ald.* (*to Clotilda who goes out*) Call to my page  
To bring the torch and light me to my chamber —

*Imo.* (*with a sudden impulse falling on her knees*).

Yet, ere thou goest, forgive me, oh my husband —

*Ald.* Forgive thee ! — What ? —

*Imo.* Oh, we do all offend —

There's not a day of wedded life, if we

Count at its close the little, bitter sum

Of thoughts and words, and looks unkind and froward,

Silence that chides and woundings of the eye —

But prostrate at each other's feet, we should

Each night forgiveness ask — then what should I ? —

*Ald.* (*not hearing the last words*) Why take it freely ;

I well may pardon, what I ne'er have felt.

*Imo.* (*following him on her knees, and kissing his hand*)

Dost thou forgive me from thine inmost soul —

God bless thee, oh, God bless thee —

*Ald.* Farewell — mine eyes grow heavy, thy sad talk

Hath stolen a heaviness upon my spirits —

I will unto my solitary couch — Farewell.'

In the next scene, Bertram revisits Imogene, and tells her that he has determined to murder her husband. Indeed, we find throughout this play the frankest communication of the most guilty intentions, and yet no effectual means are taken to prevent their execution. The lady expresses the most virtuous horror at this dreadful declaration : but, unluckily, Lord Al-dobrand, who had set out for the convent to welcome the knights of St. Anselm on their arrival from the wars, is prevented from reaching it by the overflowing of a rivulet, and opportunely returns to be stabbed by Bertram.

In the fifth act, we have a procession of the knights of St. Anselm, and an opportunity is given for much splendid spectacle : but the festive scene is shortly interrupted by the dreadful appearance of Imogene ; who rushes in with her hair

dishevelled, her dress stained with blood, and her child attending her. — We cannot help thinking that the scenes of her madness which follow, with the exception of some very moving speeches, are too “wild and wonderful,” too raving, or rather too *violently* raving, to melt us with any recollections of *Ophelia* or *Belvidera*; and when in her despair she exclaims, ‘They’ve left me—all things leave me,’ &c. &c. and her child replies, ‘I will not leave thee,’—we turn away with incredulity from this improbable style of speech in a child, and reprove an author who is capable of better things for *begging* our compassion by such common-place appeals to a sentiment too noble to be roused by any but noble means.—The lady rushes out with the child.

Bertram is next discovered in a room in the castle, sitting alone with the dead body of the murdered Aldobrand; and this we conceive to be sufficient for the taste of those who have even “supped their full of horrors.” He comes forth to the Prior and the knights; and, after some dreadful parley, in which they are afraid to seize him, he yields to them, ‘*sublime in guilt*,’ (as the author describes him,) and is led off, we suppose, for the purposes of execution. He then passes through the wood where Imogene also has been sitting with a dead body (that of her child) in a cave, and she appears in the most frantic state of madness. She recognizes Bertram at the point of her own death, and asking ‘Have I deserved this of thee?’—‘*she dies, slowly, with her eyes fixed on Bertram, who continues to gaze on her unconscious of her having expired.*’ These minute directions to the actor are in the true German taste; and we can conceive Garrick’s astonishment, to say the least of it, had *he* been directed to observe all these attitudes and expressions of living or dying in the drama, at so unwarrantable an interference with his own province of interpretation and representation of his author. Bertram, bursting into a disdainful laugh, (which *we think* we recollect in “*The Robbers*,”) seizes the sword of one of the knights, stabs himself, and then, ‘with a burst of wild exultation,’—in order, we suppose, to preserve the ‘*sublimity of his guilt*’ to the last, — dies, exclaiming,

—— ‘I died no felon death;  
A warrior’s weapon freed a warrior’s soul.’

We need not, perhaps, add any thing farther to our preliminary remarks. The style which we approve and that which we condemn in the preceding extracts will easily be discerned from what we have already said; and we have been solicitous to chuse the most favourable specimens. If, however, any additional explanation be necessary, we would observe that we  
dislike

dislike that sort of ostentatious vigour which lashes itself into exertion ; which talks of

‘ The stormy clenching of the bared teeth —  
The gory socket that the balls have burst from,’—

*et cætera de genere hoc*, as the Westminster epilogue-writers express it; and, when fierceness and discord are combined, as in the following line, the revolting spell is complete :

———— ‘ Yet beware,  
*Lest the cars burst its carments stark and curse thee.*’

We remarked a passing plagiarism or two ; — perhaps, indeed, an unconscious substitution of memory for imagination ; particularly at page 23. where, in one of the best passages of the poetry,

‘ The loved, the lost, the distant, and the dead,’

reminded us of the dream of Fitz James in “ *The Lady of the Lake.*”

Of minor faults in language, we may specify the too frequent use of *did* and *do*, as thus :

“ A thing the menials that *do* tend thee scorn,  
Whom when the good *do* name, they tell their heads ;  
And when the wicked think of, they *do* triumph.”’—

‘ Thy lord and his small train *do* stand appalled —  
With torch and bell from their high battlements  
The monks *do* summon to the pass in vain.’—

‘ Clot. The night is calm and clear, and o’er the plain  
Nor arms *do* glimmer on my straining sight,  
Nor through the stilly air *did* horseman’s tramp  
Ring in faint echo from the hollow hill,  
Though my fixed ear *did* list to giddiness.’

In one place, also, we observe the *future of volition* for the *future of necessity* :

‘ There is no hope — I’ll hear his dying groan —  
I’ll hear his last cry for that help that comes not —  
I’ll hear him call upon his wife and child ;’

and the opposition of the volition to this necessity is immediately declared in the next line,

‘ I will not hear it. — (*stopping her ears.*)’

A good prologue is given by Mr. Hobhouse, and a tolerable epilogue (as far as the lighter strain of epilogue-versification intitles it to that praise) by Mr. George Lamb. We do not, indeed, admire the attempt in the latter to defend even the atrocious character of Bertram by representing him as a *true* lover ;

lover; nor the severe satire on woman conveyed under the shape of a compliment, when she is told,

'Vice on her bosom lulls remorseful care.'

We suppose, however, that all this is intended for a jest; though the subject must be deemed a strange one for ridicule. The following four lines are rather happy:

'Still she meet hides the strength that most subdues,  
To gain each end its opposite pursues;  
Lures by neglect, advances by delay,  
And gains command by swearing to obey.'

The strains of Mr. Hobhouse are of a more nervous and manly description, as indeed his task required:

'Taught by your judgment, by your favour led,  
The grateful stage restored her mighty dead.  
But not, when wits of ages past revive,  
Should living genius therefore cease to thrive.  
No! the same liberal zeal that fondly tries  
To save the Poet, though the mortal dies,  
Impartial welcomes each illustrious birth,  
And justly crowns contemporary worth.'

ART. IX. *The Poet's Pilgrimage to Waterloo*; by Robert Southey, Esq., Poet Laureate, Member of the Royal Spanish Academy, and of the Royal Spanish Academy of History. 12mo. 1os. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

So numerous and so *médiocre* have been the versifiers of the battle of Waterloo, that we opened this volume with feelings of fatigued attention, which even the circumstance of perusing it on the anniversary of the glorious 18th of June could scarcely rouse into satisfaction with the subject that had so wearied us.

"*Expectes eadem à summo minimoque poetâ*"

seems indeed to be the motto on this occasion: but by none has this same thesis been treated in a manner so conspicuously superior to the mass of his tuneful brethren,—

"The mob of gentlemen who write" — *to teane*—

as by the Laureate himself. We lately witnessed him, in his *Minor* poems, in the character, as we thought for the most part, of *Poeta Minimus*; and we are now therefore proportionably glad of an opportunity to welcome him as, in our judgement, *Poeta Summus*. The '*Pilgrimage to Waterloo*' appears to us to be not only the best of the numerous effusions on that victory, but, on the whole, the most pleasing, the most



most classical, and the least prosaic of all Mr. Southey's compositions. This last epithet is, in truth, indicative of the sin which most easily and most uniformly besets the author. A want of figurative and poetical expression is the prevailing defect of his writings *in verse*; while a great clearness, simplicity, and freedom from bombast, form their prevailing excellence. As, however, we have so often recorded our opinions on his general qualifications for the character which he does not seem wanting on this or on any other occasion to appropriate to himself, by those inward aspirations and that noble consciousness which rather seem to resemble the bold avowal of Lucan than the diffident anticipations of Statius\*; as, we say, we have *analyzed* and *synthetized* the properties and the peculiarities of Mr. Southey's muse on several occasions, we shall only now have the more pleasing task to perform, of justifying our preceding praise by various selections from this most interesting little volume.

It commences with a pleasing picture of the poet's return, with his wife and daughter, to the rest of his family in Cumberland. We know not where, through the whole range of our poetry, the best and the most natural feelings are expressed in a sweeter manner:

- ' Once more I see thee, Skiddaw! once again  
Behold thee in thy majesty serene,  
Where, like the bulwark of this favoured plain,  
Alone thou standest, monarch of the scene ...  
Thou glorious Mountain, on whose ample breast  
The sunbeams love to play, the vapours love to rest!
- ' Once more, O Derwent! to thy awful shores  
I come, insatiate of the accustomed sight:  
And listening as the eternal torrent roars,  
Drink in with eye and ear a fresh delight:  
For I have wandered far by land and sea,  
In all my wanderings still remembering thee:
- ' Twelve years, (how large a part of man's brief day!)  
Nor idly, nor ingloriously spent,  
Of evil and of good have held their way,  
Since first upon thy banks I pitched my tent.  
Hither I came in manhood's active prime,  
And here my head hath felt the touch of time.
- ' Heaven hath with goodly increase blest me here,  
Where childless and oppress'd with grief I came;

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\* Our classical readers will recollect the difference between the "*Pharsalia nostra Vivet*" of the former, and the "*Longè sequare, & vestigia semper adora*," of the latter.

With voice of fervent thankfulness sincere

Let me the blessings which are mine proclaim:  
Here I possess, . . . what more should I require?  
Books, children, leisure, . . . all my heart's desire.

' O joyful hour, when to our longing home  
The long-expected wheels at length drew nigh!  
When the first sound went forth, "They come! they come!"  
And hope's impatience quickened every eye!  
"Never had man whom Heaven would heap with bliss  
More glad return, more happy hour than this."

' Aloft on yonder bench, with arms dispread,  
My boy stood, shouting there his father's name,  
Waving his hat around his happy head;  
And there, a younger group, his sisters came:  
Smiling they stood with looks of pleased surprise,  
While tears of joy were seen in elder eyes.

' Soon each and all came crouding round to share  
The cordial greeting, the beloved sight;  
What welcomings of hand and lip were there!  
And when those overflowings of delight  
Subsided to a sense of quiet bliss,  
Life hath no purer deeper happiness.

' The young companion of our weary way  
Found here the end desired of all her ills;  
She who in sickness pining many a day  
Hungered and thirsted for her native hills,  
Forgetful now of sufferings past and pain,  
Rejoiced to see her own dear home again.

' Recovered now, the homesick mountaineer  
Sate by the playmate of her infancy,  
Her twin-like comrade, . . . rendered doubly dear  
For that long absence: full of life was she,  
With voluble discourse and eager mien  
Telling of all the wonders she had seen.'

We heartily wish that we could prolong this extract; since every stanza has its own peculiar merit, and we fully agree with the author on *this* occasion (although we *could* wish that he were not so well aware of it) that this is a 'gentle song;' and that he may call it, even to the very faces of the 'nymphs of Castaly divine,'

' Such as, I ween, is ne'er disowned by you —  
A low prelusive strain to nature true.'

When in the stanza following he uses the words

— 'to the height of that great argument,'

and when, on some other occasions in his poem, he is indebted to his predecessors in like manner, he has forgotten his own excellent

excellent rule in his notes, page 224., that 'it is the duty of every poet to acknowledge *all* his obligations of this kind to his predecessors.'

In the first division of the 'Journey,' or the first part of the 'Pilgrimage,' we have an animated and accurate description of the general appearance of Flanders, and of the city of Bruges in particular. The 'pilgrim' seems to have been singularly happy in his chance-companions, in the vessel that bore him from the shores of Kent to Ostend. Among them (those at least whom he has chosen to enumerate, and we *conclude* that he is here no longer on fairy land, but really relating the truth,) was a traveller from Russia;

'The one of frozen Muscovy could speak;—

'And one had dwelt with Malabars and Moors;—

and the third

'Had sojourned long beyond the Atlantic sea;—

although *he*, it seems, set out from the Land of Lakes with the author. It was a goodly company, assuredly; and the principal performer in the band seems to have used his time very well, and to have extracted as much harmony as he could derive from the Dutch concerts which he must have witnessed.

The second division relates to Brussels; and here we must present our readers with another extract, which in our opinion possesses a very touching charm, that of perfect truth and simplicity. After having described the brilliant appearance of the town on the night of an illumination for the arrival of the Russian Emperor, the poem proceeds:

'You might have deemed to see that joyous town;  
That wretchedness and pain were there unknown.

'Yet three short months had scarcely passed away,  
Since, shaken with the approaching battle's breath,  
Her inmost chambers trembled with dismay;  
And now within her walls, insatiate Death,  
Devourer whom no harvest e'er can fill,  
The gleanings of that field was gathering still.'

'Within these walls there lingered at that hour  
Many a brave soldier on the bed of pain,  
Whom aid of human art should ne'er restore  
To see his country and his friends again;  
And many a victim of that fell debate  
Whose life yet wavered in the scales of fate.

'Some I beheld, for whom the doubtful scale  
Had to the side of life inclined at length;  
Emaciate was their form, their features pale,  
The limbs so vigorous late, bereft of strength;

And

And for their gay habiliments of yore,  
The habit of the House of Pain they wore.

- Some in the courts of that great hospital  
That they might taste the sun and open air,  
Crawled out; or sate beneath the southern wall;  
Or leaning in the gate, stood gazing there  
In listless guise upon the passers by,  
Whiling away the hours of slow recovery.
- Others in waggons borne abroad I saw,  
Albeit recovering, still a mournful sight:  
Languid and helpless some were stretched on straw,  
Some more advanced sustained themselves upright,  
And with bold eye and careless front, methought,  
Seemed to set wounds and death again at nought.
- Well had it fared with these; nor went it ill  
With those whom war had of a limb bereft,  
Leaving the life untouched, that they had still  
Enough for health as for existence left;  
But some there were who lived to draw the breath  
Of pain thro' hopeless years of lingering death.
- Here might the hideous face of war be seen,  
Stript of all pomp, adornment, and disguise;  
It was a dismal spectacle, I ween,  
Such as might well to the beholders' eyes  
Bring sudden tears, and make the pious mind  
Grieve for the crimes and follies of mankind.
- What had it been then in the recent days  
Of that great triumph, when the open wound  
Was festering, and along the crowded ways,  
Hour after hour was heard the incessant sound  
Of wheels, which o'er the rough and stony road  
Conveyed their living agonizing load!
- Hearts little to the melting mood inclined  
Grew sick to see their sufferings; and the thought  
Still comes with horror to the shuddering mind,  
Of those sad days when Belgian ears were taught  
The British soldier's cry, half groan, half prayer,  
Breathed when his pain is more than he can bear.
- Brave spirits, nobly had their part been done!  
Brussels could show, where Senne's slow waters glide,  
The cannon which their matchless valour won,  
Proud trophies of the field, ranged side by side,  
Where as they stood in inoffensive row,  
The solitary guard paced to and fro.
- Unconscious instruments of human woe,  
Some for their mark the royal lilies bore,  
Fixed there when Britain was the Bourbon's foe;  
And some embossed in brazen letters wore

The sign of that abhorred misrule, which broke  
The guilty nation for a Tyrant's yoke.

- Others were stamp'd with that Usurper's name, . .  
Recorders thus of many a change were they,  
Their deadly work thro' every change the same;  
Nor ever had they seen a bloodier day,  
Than when as their late thunders rolled around,  
Brabant in all her cities felt the sound.
- Then ceased their occupation. From the field  
Of battle here in triumph were they brought;  
Ribbands and flowers and laurels half concealed  
Their brazen mouths, so late with ruin fraught;  
Women beheld them pass with joyful eyes,  
And children clapt their hands, and rent the air with cries.
- Now idly on the banks of Senne they lay,  
Like toys with which a child is pleased no more:  
Only the British traveller bends his way  
To see them on that unfrequented shore,  
And as a mournful feeling blends with pride,  
Remembers those who fought, and those who died.

We are unable to allow room for any other selection 'from the first part of the poem; and, in truth, the two remaining divisions, 'the Field of Battle' and 'the Scene of War,' though abounding in animated passages, — particularly in the lines on the death of Picton, and in the very beautiful description of the ruins of Hougoumont, with the poetical associations of tenderness, pride, and melancholy excited by such a scene, — have no *series* of stanzas, we think, that are equal to those which we have already selected.

On the second division of the *Pilgrimage*, or 'the Vision,' we could linger with delight, as on the most rational and philosophical composition. By a very striking and original fiction, the poet fancies himself on the summit of a lofty but ill-supported tower, with an old man of awful and unendearing aspect; who, it appears, personifies the false wisdom, or material philosophy, that preceded, accelerated, and embittered the fatal effects of the revolutionary system. This aged deceiver gives the dreamer a glass, by which he sees how all things arose from darkness and how they end in it. He endeavours, by the usual sophistries, to prove that blind destiny is the sole guide and director of human affairs; and that, in course, present enjoyment, as far as it can be taken compatibly with worldly wisdom, is the best object of mankind. Ample justice is certainly done to the old arguments of infidelity, in their statement from the mouth of this allegorical personage; and, in fact, we could rather have wished that

that in the reply of the poet, or in that which follows, the objections had been combated more in detail, and had not left any shade of that uncomfortable impression on the young and unfortified mind which it is possible they may at present leave. Another point that we would suggest to the calm consideration of the author is whether it be fair to involve, in one common character with the advocate for despotism and atheism, the politician who, not being gifted with the happy sanguine temper of his adversaries, does see, *even* in the present prospects of Europe,

*“ Amari aliquid quod in ipsis floribus augeat ;”*

who imagines that it is possible to give the hordes of the north too ample a taste of the honey of more southern regions; and who, when he looks to an amputation in Denmark, and a transfer in Saxony, and an entire annexation in Genoa, must allow that it is possible for general principles to be violated in particular cases even by the best regulated of congresses. That the genuine and honest sense of unbiassed individuals, in any part of the world, can approve the acts to which we allude, we do not believe; and here, indeed, would have been an occasion for Mr. Southey to feel that awkwardness and difficulty of defending what was attacked, which he seems so unaccountably to have felt when his country was accused by his Belgian acquaintance even of the base artifice, or rather the ludicrous insanity, of letting Bonaparte loose from Elba, in order to have an opportunity of farther weakening the power of France, which had been left too dangerously great in the former treaty!!! We had deemed this too visionary and absurd to have survived the moment that gave birth to it some months ago: but what must we think of the author's declaration that a great shock has been given to MORAL FEELING on the Continent, in consequence of the English not putting Bonaparte to death!!! Really this is something too much; and we must for a few minutes descend to argument even on *such* a cause. — Did Mr. Southey, then, *sincerely* feel unable to controvert the extraordinary notions of his Flanders friends, which he admits to be preposterous? When England was accused *for not putting a prisoner to death*, did it never occur to him that this person, (atrocious as his character may have been, *that* is not here the question,) whether he is to be considered as voluntarily or involuntarily in our possession, was *not* the object of *our* justice, but of the justice of his own country? Was he demanded of us by that country for trial, and acquittal or punishment? Does not Mr. Southey know that

it was officially and authoritatively declared in the British House of Commons, that Bonaparte, on his retreat to Elba, was an Independent Sovereign? And whether from any difficulties of this nature, or, from general motives of policy, his detention in France, or his surrender to France, were deemed inexpedient, will Mr. Southey come forwards with his blushes for his country, and his delicacy of distress, when this blunder was made in Belgium, and talk of MORAL FEELING being shocked because England did not become the executioner of Europe?—To quit so wild an idea with something more appropriate to it than serious expostulation, we would suggest the question to those who are qualified to decide it, whether it be not expedient for the annual butt of Malmsey at least to be withdrawn, *durante bene placito*, from a laureate who has shewn such refractory symptoms in so early a stage of his creation; and who is not contented with condemning the spirit of the acts of his government, but is offended with the mode of their carrying their own designs into execution, and objects to all the apparatus of comfort and convenience, whether lavender-coloured window-curtains or olive-green pantaloons, that have been sent out to St. Helena? Nay, who considers these trappings and indescribables to be so many proofs of the justice of the continental suspicions, and therefore likely to operate as an additional shock on the MORAL FEELINGS of Flanders?

The poet is now summoned from the 'Tottering Tower' of false philosophy to the 'Sacred Mountain,' by a heavenly voice:

' The voice it was which I was wont to hear,  
Sweet as a mother's to her infant's ear.'

The description of the sacred hill is enchanting; and the 'awful muse,' who is the monitress and guide on the occasion, gives excellent guidance and most sound advice. The compassion for Italy and Spain, glowing and natural as it is, does the poet equal honour; and the whole of this vision, in the descriptive as well as the reflective portions, displays a truly poetical imagination, a feeling heart, and an admirable command of clear, simple, and forcible language, formed into musical, various, and highly gifted versification. The old English measure of the stanza of six lines, four alternate and two rhyming together, is indeed a charming vehicle for every species of style;—dignified and severe, or soft and pleasing, as the subject demands.

We cannot pursue the allegory within our remaining limits through the last division of it, 'The Hopes of Man:' but we wish that we could enter into all the enthusiastic anticipations of its author. May they prove just! They involve the happiness of mankind, largely through the instrumentality of our native country. We would only ask whether poetical or political justice suggested the exclusion of Charles James Fox from the brief tribute to the principal friends of the slave-trade? Neither Clarkson nor Wilberforce, who are both mentioned, would accept, we should think, such a compliment with such an omission.

We must endeavour to gratify our readers and ourselves with one other extract from this small but attractive volume. The heavenly monitress is shewing the poet the wonders and glories of the prospect from her enchanted abode:

- ' Behold! she cried, and lifting up her hand,  
The shaping elements obeyed her will; . . .  
A vapour gathered round our lofty stand,  
Rolled in thick volumes o'er the Sacred Hill;  
Descending then, its surges far and near  
Filled all the wide subjacent atmosphere.
- ' As I have seen from Skiddaw's stony height  
The fleecy clouds scud round me on their way,  
Condense beneath, and hide the vale from sight,  
Then opening, just disclose where Derwent lay  
Burnished with sunshine like a silver shield,  
Or old enchanter's glass, for magic forms fit field:
- ' So at her will, in that receding sheet  
Of mist wherewith the world was overlaid,  
A living picture moved beneath our feet.  
A spacious city first was there displayed,  
The seat where England from her ancient reign  
Doth rule the Ocean as her own domain.
- ' In splendour with those famous cities old,  
Whose power it hath surpassed, it now might vie;  
Thro' many a bridge the wealthy river rolled;  
Aspiring columns reared their heads on high,  
Triumphal arches spanned the roads, and gave  
Due guerdon to the memory of the brave.
- ' A landscape followed, such as might compare  
With Flemish fields for well-requited toil;  
The wonder-working hand had every where  
Subdued all circumstance of stubborn soil;  
In fen and moor reclaimed rich gardens smiled,  
And populous hamlets rose amid the wild.



' There the old seaman on his native shore  
 Enjoyed the competence deserved so well ;  
 The soldier, his dread occupation o'er,  
 Of well-rewarded service loved to tell ;  
 The grey-haired labourer there whose work was done,  
 In comfort saw the day of life go down.'

We have only a few criticisms to make on particular passages in the poem ; and then, with hearty thanks and congratulations, we shall bid our successful laureate adieu.

The language of Mr. Southey, with the exception of some occasional quaintnesses and forced peculiarities, is very laudably correct ; and in the present day it is more than commonly deserving of our panegyric, because it is unpolluted by the vicious example of some of his most fortunate poetical rivals. He will merit hereafter the honourable distinction of having written pure English, when so many of his contemporaries certainly wrote any other language ; although, if it were *any* language, it was professedly their own. Having said thus much, we are bound to notice some of the inaccuracies and other blemishes that we have discovered. We must enter our protest, at p. 8., against such a rhyme as '*thus*' and '*disuse*.' — At p. 24., when we are told,

' Crack goes the whip,' —

and

—— ' steady went the barge,'

we cannot but be reminded how some things "*go*," and how others "*went*," in the ballads of our infancy. At page 30. we have the odd coinage of '*disregardant* ;' and at p. 32.

' Nor yields to *Oxford Tom*, or *Tom of Lincoln's* fame,'

is a line that exceeds even the Spenserian familiarity which, in the present day, can be pleaded by the licentious imitators of that exquisite poet.

P. 55. ' Even our glorious Blenheim to the field  
 Of Wellington and Waterloo must yield !'

This is a most flat and *bell-man-like* couplet ; although the *bell-man* would as probably have suggested the line above, concerning *Oxford Tom*, and *Tom of Lincoln*. We hope that Mr. Southey intends not to fall into the popular, we may say vulgar, exaltation of Waterloo, great as its glories were, over the antient scenes of English valour.

' And there the house of Belle Alliance stands'

is like a line in "a Picture-Book," explaining to a child the subject of the engraving opposite to the page which he is reading : " This is the house that Jack built," &c. ; — and,

In fact, opposite to this very page (57.) is an engraving of the said house of Belle Alliance; one of several very interesting plates that are interspersed throughout this volume. At p. 59. we have another absurd coinage, in the word 'emuling' for rivalling. At p. 73., 'séas' rhyme to 'peace;' and the proper jingle is so obviously suggested by the improper 'peace,' that we defy any reader to miss it; particularly when the author, in a previous passage of great beauty, has told us that much of the field of battle is covered with grain of every description. At p. 98., certain persons are mentioned as

' Forgetful, as the stream of time flows on,  
That that which passes is for ever gone.'

Indeed ?

' And what's impossible can't be,  
And, never, never, comes to pass.'

Stranger and stranger still !

The 114th page of the Pilgrimage presents us with a most singular instance, when compared with p. 224. of the notes, already quoted, of the establishment of a rule and the violation of it almost in the same breath by the same person. The poet observes,

' All-ruling Fate itself hath not the power  
To alter what has been ; and he has had his hour,'

which is slightly altered, without any acknowledgement, from a passage in one of Dryden's Translations of Horace :

" Not heaven itself upon the past hath power,  
But what has been has been, — and I have had my hour."

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ART. X. *A Charge delivered to the Grand Jury of the County of Wexford, at the Summer Assizes, 1814, by Judge Fletcher.* 8vo. pp. 52. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

ART. XI. *Observations on the present State of Ireland.* By George Ensor, Esq. 8vo. pp. 123. Dublin, Fitzpatrick. 1814.

WE have here a series of observations on the affairs of Ireland, from two men placed in very different situations, and disposed to view things through a very different medium. Both are strongly imbued with a conviction of the distressed and discontented state of their country: but, while the one is evidently desirous to soften the colouring of his picture, the other seems to take pleasure in aggravating whatever is hideous or deformed.

Mr. Justice Fletcher is a descendant, we understand, of the well-known Fletcher of Saltoun, and has occupied a seat in the Irish bench during the last ten years. While in parliament, he was generally on the side of Opposition, but without attempting to throw any unnecessary or wanton impediments in the way of the proceedings of Government. In his present capacity of a Judge of the Common Pleas, he has occasion to travel in a number of different counties; and, on taking his seat with the grand jury of Wexford, a county in complete tranquillity, he embraced the opportunity of expatiating at considerable length on the state of the island :

‘ In my circuits through other parts of the kingdom, I have seen the lower orders of the people disturbed by many causes, not peculiar to any particular counties ; operating with more effect in some, but to a greater or less extent in all. I have seen them operating with extended effect in the north-west circuit, in the counties of Mayo, Donegal, Derry, Roscommon, &c. &c. These effects have made a deep impression on my mind. My observations, certainly, have been those of an individual ; but of an individual seeing the same facts coming before him, judicially, time after time — and I do now publicly state, that never, during the entire period of my judicial experience (comprising sixteen circuits) have I discovered or observed any serious purpose, or settled scheme of assailing His Majesty's Government, or any conspiracy connected with internal rebels or foreign foes. But various deep rooted and neglected causes, producing similar effects throughout this country, have conspired to create the evils which really and truly do exist.

‘ First, the extraordinary rise of land, occasioned by the great and increasing demand for the necessaries of life, and by producing large profits to the possessors of farms, excited a proportionate avidity for acquiring or renting lands. Hence extravagant rents have been bid for lands, without any great consideration ; and I have seen these two circumstances operating upon each other, like cause and effect — the cause producing the effect ; and the effect, by re-action, producing the cause.

‘ Next, we all know, that the country has been deluged by an enormous Paper Currency, which has generated a new crime, now prominent upon the list, in every calendar — the crime of making and uttering forged Bank Notes. In every province, we have seen private banks failing, and ruining multitudes, and thus have fresh mischiefs flowed from this paper-circulation. In the next place, the country has seen a magistracy, over-active in some instances, and quite supine in others. This circumstance has materially affected the administration of the laws in Ireland. In this respect I have found that those societies, called Orange Societies, have produced most mischievous effects ; and particularly in the north of Ireland. They poison the very fountains of justice ; and even some magistrates, under their influence, have, in too many instances, violated their duty and their oaths. I do not hesitate to say,

say, that all Associations of every description, in this country, whether of Orangemen or Ribbonmen — whether distinguished by the colour of Orange or of Green — all combinations of persons, bound to each other (by the obligation of an oath) in a league for a common purpose, endangering the peace of the country, I pronounce them to be contrary to law. — So long as those Associations are permitted to act in the lawless manner they do, there will be no tranquillity in this country; and particularly in the north of Ireland. There, those disturbers of the public peace, who assume the name of Orange Yeomen, frequent the fairs and markets, with arms in their hands, under the pretence of self-defence, or of protecting the public peace, but with the lurking view of inviting the attacks from the Ribbonmen — confident that, armed as they are, they must overcome defenceless opponents, and put them down. Murders have been repeatedly perpetrated upon such occasions; and, though legal prosecutions have ensued, yet, such have been the baneful consequences of those factious Associations, that, under their influence, Petty Juries have declined (upon some occasions) to do their duty. These facts have fallen under my own view. It was sufficient to say — such a man displayed such a colour, to produce an utter disbelief of his testimony; or, when another has stood with his hand at the bar, the display of his party badge has mitigated the murder into manslaughter. —

‘ That moderate pittance, which the high rents leave to the poor peasantry, the large county assessments nearly take from them; roads are frequently planned and made, not for the general advantage of the country, but to suit the particular views of a neighbouring land-holder, at the public expense. Such abuses shake the very foundation of the law — they ought to be checked. Superadded to these mischiefs, are the permanent and occasional absentee landlords, residing in another country, not known to their tenantry, but by their agents, who extract the uttermost penny of the value of the lands. If a lease happens to fall in, they set the farm by public auction to the highest bidder. No gratitude for past services — no preference of the fair offer — no predilection for the ancient tenantry, (be they ever so deserving.) — Nothing (as the peasantry imagine) remains for them, thus harassed and thus destitute, but with strong hand to deter the stranger from intruding upon their farms; and to extort from the weakness and terrors of their landlords, (from whose gratitude or good feelings they have failed to win it,) a kind of preference for their ancient tenantry.’ —

‘ To these several causes of disturbance, we may add certain moral causes. There has existed an ancient connection, solitary in its nature, between the Catholic pastor and his flock. This connection has been often, with very little reflection, inveighed against, by those who call themselves friends to the constitution in church and state. I have had judicial opportunities of knowing, that this connection between the Catholic pastor and his flock, has been, in some instances, weakened and nearly destroyed; the flock, goaded by their wants, and flying in the face of the pastor, with a lamentable abandonment of all religious feeling, and a dereliction of all regard

regard to that pastoral superintendence, which is so essential to the tranquillity of the country.' —

'I now come to another source of vice and mischief, with which you are, perhaps, unacquainted — "Illicit Distillation." From this source, a dreadful torrent of evils and crimes has flowed upon our land. The excessive increase of rents had induced many persons to bid rents for their farms, which they knew they could not fairly or properly discharge; but they flattered themselves, that, in the course of years, the value of those farms would rise still higher, and that thus they might ultimately acquire beneficial interests. In the mean time, they have had recourse to illicit distillation, as the means of making good their rents. Hence the Public Revenue has been defrauded to the amount of millions — Nay, it is a fact, that at one period not far back there was not a single licensed distillery in an entire province — namely the north-west circuit. — The resident gentry of the county generally, winked with both their eyes at this practice, and why? because it brought home to the doors of their tenantry a market for their corn; and consequently increased the rents of their lands — besides they were themselves consumers of those liquors, and in every town and village there was an unlicensed house for retailing them. This consumption of spirits produced such pernicious effects that at length the executive powers deemed it high time to put an end to the system. The consequence was, that the people, rendered ferocious by the use of those liquors, and accustomed to lawless habits, resorted to force, resisted the laws, opposed the military, and hence have resulted riots, assaults, and murders.'

A grievance of too frequent occurrence in Ireland is the committal to jail of men in the lower ranks, on light and trivial grounds. Judge Fletcher mentions (p. 18.) that, on opening the Assizes of 1814 at Clonmell, he found *a hundred and twenty* names in the calendar; and that, notwithstanding this multitude of prisoners, the whole business was finished in three days, two persons only being guilty of serious crimes. At Waterford, the case was nearly similar; and the whole of his circuit proved, like all his preceding experience as a judge, that the counties declared by public rumour to be disturbed were in fact in the enjoyment of perfect tranquillity. 'Ireland,' he adds, 'has been favoured by nature with her richest gifts; let it not be asserted that its inhabitants are a race so vicious and depraved as are no where else to be found.' Happily, some instances of benevolent landlords occur, such as Earl Fitzwilliam in Wicklow and the Marquis of Hertford in Antrim; noblemen who give a preference to the tenant in possession, and never refuse to renew his lease on an advance merely proportioned to the general rise of the times. This, however, is far from satisfying the majority of Irish landlords; who, living at a distance from their tenants, have no scruple  
in

in handing them over to the rapacity of the middle-man, and are not ashamed to obtain from Grand Juries, at the expence of the middle and labouring classes, a variety of accommodations subservient to their personal convenience.

‘ For my part, I am wholly at a loss to conceive how those permanent absentees can reconcile it to their feelings or their interests to remain silent spectators of such a state of things — or how they can forbear to raise their voices in behalf of their unhappy country, and attempt to open the eyes of our English neighbours; who, generally speaking, know about as much of the Irish as they do of the Hindoos. Does a visitor come to Ireland, to compile a book of travels, what is his course? He is handed about from one country-gentleman to another, all interested in concealing from him the true state of the country; all busy in pouring falsehoods into his ears, touching the disturbed state of the country, and the vicious habits of the people.

‘ Such is the crusade of information upon which the English traveller sets forward; and he returns to his own country with all his unfortunate prejudices doubled and confirmed — in a kind of moral despair of the welfare of such a wicked race, having made up his mind that nothing ought to be done for this lawless and degraded country. —

‘ Gentlemen, I will tell you what those absentees ought particularly to do — they ought to promote the establishment of houses of refuge, houses of industry, school-houses, and set the example, upon their own estates, of building decent cottages. — Are the farms of an English land-holder out of lease, or his cottages in a state of dilapidation? he re-builds every one of them for his tenants, or he covenants to supply them with materials for the purpose. But how are matters conducted in this country? Why, if there is a house likely to fall into ruins, upon an expiring lease, the new rack-rent tenant must rebuild it himself: and can you wonder if your plantations are visited for the purpose, or if your young trees are turned into plough-handles, spade-handles, or roofs for their cabins? They are more than Egyptian task-masters, who call for bricks without furnishing a supply of straw.’ —

‘ Gentlemen, as to tythes, they are generally complained of as a great grievance. In the time in which we live, they are a tax upon industry, upon enterprize, and upon agricultural skill. Is a man intelligent and industrious — does he, by agriculture, reclaim a tract of land, and make it productive of corn, he is visited and harassed by the Tythe Proctor; does his neighbour, through want of inclination or of skill, keep his farm in pasture and unimproved, he is exonerated from the burthen of tythes, and from the visitations of any clergy not belonging to his own church. Far be it from me to say, that tythes are not due to the clergy. By the law of the land, they have as good a title to their tythes as any of you have to your estates; and I am convinced that the clergyman does not, in any instance, exact what he is strictly entitled to. But this mode of assessment has been much complained of; and it is particularly felt in this country, because the Catholic receives no  
spiritual

spiritual comfort from his Protestant rector; he knows him only through the Tythe Proctor, and he has moreover his own pastor to pay. —

Gentlemen, you have in your power another remedy for public commotions. I allude to the assessment of the presentment money upon your county. It seems that the sum of 9000*l.* is now demanded to be levied: whether this sum is, or is not, an exorbitant one for this county, I know not. It falls wholly upon the occupying tenants or farmers. Pray keep this circumstance constantly in your minds. The benefit of this tax is your own. By its operation, you have your farms well divided and improved; good roads made round your estates; useful bridges and walls erected. Indeed, I have known counties which have been parcelled out to undertakers by baronies, and where no man could get a job without the consent of the baronial undertaker; they met and commuted, and it was thus agreed — “I give you your job here, and you give me my job there.” — I spoke freely of these things to the Grand Jury of the county of Tipperary;—what was the beneficial result? The Foreman (Mr. Bagwell) came forward soon afterwards from the Grand Jury-room, and stated publicly in Court, that, in consequence of my charge, he and his Fellow-Jurors had thrown out applications for presentments to the amount of 9600*l.* These may be presumed to be jobs, under pretence of building walls and bridges, filling hollows, lowering hills, &c. Here, indeed, was some good done by this sudden impulse of economy — here were the fruits of a free and candid exhortation before the public eye.’ —

‘But there is one remedy, that would, in my estimation, more than any other, especially contribute to soothe the minds of the discontented peasantry, and, thereby, to enable them patiently to suffer the pressure of those burthens, which cannot, under existing circumstances, be effectually removed — I mean the “equal and impartial Administration of Justice;” — of that justice which the rich can pursue, until it be attained; but which, that it may benefit the cottager, should be brought home to his door. Such an administration of justice would greatly reconcile the lower orders of the people, with the Government under which they live; and, at no very distant period, I hope, attach them to the law, by imparting its benefits, and extending its protection to them, in actual and uniform experience. Gentlemen, if you ask me, how may this be accomplished? I answer, by a vigilant superintendence of the administration of justice at Quarter Sessions, and an anxious observance of the conduct of all Justices of Peace. — Perhaps, the Commission of the Peace, in every county in the kingdom, should be examined. During a long war, in seasons of popular commotion, under Chief Governors, (all acting, unquestionably, with good intentions, but upon various principles, and different views,) it is not improbable, that many men have crept into the commission, who, however useful they might occasionally have been, ought not to remain. The needy adventurer — the hunter for preferment — the intemperate zealot — the trader in false loyalty — the jobbers of absentees — if any of these various descriptions of individuals are

are now to be found, their names should be expunged from the Commission; and if such a mode of proceeding should thin the Commission, vacancies might be supplied, by soliciting every gentleman of property and consideration to discharge some part of that debt of duty, which he owes to himself and the country, by accepting the office of Justice of Peace. Should their number be inadequate to supply the deficiency, clergymen, long resident on their benefices, more inclined to follow the precepts of their Divine Master, by feeding the hungry and clothing the naked Catholic, (although, adhering to the communion of his fathers, he should conscientiously decline to receive from him spiritual consolation,) not harassing and vexing him by a new mode of tything, and an increase of tythes: but seeking to compensate the dissentients from his communion for the income he derives from their labour, by shewing a regard for their temporal welfare — attached to their Protestant flocks by a mutual interchange of good offices, by affection, and by habit: — such a man, anxiously endeavouring, not to distract and divide, but to conciliate and reconcile all sects and parties, would, from his education, his leisure, his local knowledge, be a splendid acquisition to the magistracy, and a public blessing to the district committed to his care. Men of this description are retired and unobtrusive; but, I trust, if sought after, many such may be found.

From Mr. Ensor's pamphlet, we have no inclination to make extracts. He seems to delight in treading on inflammable materials, such as the 'Violation of the Act of Union, the Treachery of Ministers, the Despotism of Government, the Jealousy of one Part of the Empire in regard to another,' and a variety of equally promising topics. His tract is divided into a succession of chapters, one of which treats of the State of landed Property in Ireland; another, of Tythes; a third, of the Conduct of the Executive Government; a fourth, of the late Insurrection-bills, &c. We are always desirous of listening to information with regard to Ireland, if we have reason to expect accurate and dispassionate statements: but, as we cannot view Mr. E.'s publication in that light, we must take our leave of him without farther ceremony, and again point the attention of our readers to the passages quoted from the aged and benevolent Judge.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JUNE, 1816.

POETRY.

- 'Art. 12. *Waterloo, a Poem with Notes.* By Henry Davidson, Esq. Advocate. 8vo. pp. 115. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1816.

Viewed



Viewed at a moderate distance, this poem has many attractions. It is well printed, and on good paper: it has two classical mottos in the title-page; and the notes not only *look* but really *are* interesting, consisting chiefly of extracts from the popular prose-works of the day on the highly and deservedly celebrated engagement at Waterloo.

As to the work itself, it loses much of the effect above mentioned, when more closely examined. Not that we find any thing bad in it positively, unless indeed mediocrity be the most positive badness of poetry: but it is a feeble, diffuse, and uninteresting copy of Walter Scott's style and manner, interspersed with occasional *dashes* of Lord Byron; and, although apparently the composition of a scholar and a gentleman, it has neither design to distinguish nor execution to raise it from that mass of wire-wove and hot-pressed papers, with *Waterloo* at their heads, which now beset and burthen our reading desks and those of our contemporaries:—who, as the author expresses it, are ‘*harāss'd* \* with ‘the past’ and ‘the last’ beat of the modern kettle-drum of verse to the tune of the Wonders of Waterloo. The passage that immediately follows the lines just mentioned is perhaps as fair a specimen of the general style of the poem as we can select:

‘ There is a balm for every wound  
For every woe a charm is found,  
And every pang the mind may fear,  
But that of conscience and despair.  
O what shall lay the fiery smart,  
The tossing of a fever’d heart,  
That shrinks from what is past and o’er,  
Yet fears to cast its looks before,  
And on itself must rest:  
What potent charm can memory steep,  
And hush her busy train to sleep,  
Wash out the blot of murder deep  
Upon the soul impress’d?’

Art. 13. *Waterloo, and other Poems*. By Edmund L. Swift, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 77. Stockdale. 1815.

Consistency of political principles is as delightful as good poetry itself. Mr. Swift writes a Proeme (as he calls it) to this publication, containing a high panegyric on Mr. Pitt and Lord Castle-reagh; and at page 73. we have a note in which the following Tory-doctrine is duly maintained:

‘ In 1367, Edward the Black Prince joined his forces with edro, King of Castile, against the Bastard Henry of Transta-

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\* It is but justice to say that few such lines as the following occur in the poem

‘ Nought is left thee but the last,  
The keenest pang of mind *harass'd*,  
The memory of what thou wast,  
The sense of what thou art.’

marre; whom he defeated at Najara with the loss of twenty thousand men.

'It was then, as it is now. We asserted the right of the legitimate sovereign, without discussing his character; and we assert it at this day, without investigations which are utterly foreign to us. — We have as little concern with the character of King Ferdinand as our ancestors had with that of King Pedro: but we are bound to vindicate the cause of legitimacy.'

After what has passed in Spain, we shall leave the good sense and the good feeling of our readers to make their own comment on this opinion. Generally speaking, the poetry in this collection is better than the usual run of ephemeral effusions on Waterloo, &c. &c.

'Paris hath yielded. — Opening ere assailed,  
Her gates confess the British Victor's tread;  
Though thrice five moons their lustre scarce had paled,  
Since War's strong grasp her towers unvirgined.\*  
She is a captive — and the spoil that fed  
Her ravening gorge, the captive must resign.  
Yon insolent walls are with our trophies spread,  
Of human record, and of rite divine,  
Rent from the regal dome, and from the sacred shrine.

'Slight penance for her Bandit's wide career,  
The ocean-flood of human misery!  
Slight penance for the Parent's childless tear,  
The Orphan's wailing, and the Widow's sigh! —  
Oh! for each flame that fired the farthest sky,  
Where Gaul's red torch the waste of terror strewed,  
Did Europe's showering wrath one spark supply —  
Ere now, the Mourner in his solitude  
Had o'er the pillared legend wept — *Here Paris stood!*' —

Towards the end of the pamphlet, we are brought back to Vittoria and Vauxhall; and we conclude with

'God bless the Old King!

*' Sung at the celebration of the Jubilee in Dublin, 25th October, 1809.'*

We think that it would be out of order to suffer any other song to succeed this usual finale. We must therefore express our approbation of it, and of several of Mr. Swift's occasional compositions, and conclude.

Art. 14. *Mont St. Jean*, a Poem by William Liddiard. *Theodore and Laura*, a Tale, by I. S. Anna Liddiard, Author of *Kenilworth*, and other Poems. 8vo. pp. 72. Longman and Co. 1816.

Miss Liddiard's "*Kenilworth*" we had the pleasure of reviewing some little time ago, (see our Number for December last); and

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\* How is this word to be understood and justified; and how is a line in stanza 26. to be read?

'And companied but by the worm that never dies.'

we have now to say of her 'Theodore and Laura,' that it is recommended by the same want of interest which distinguished her former ingenious little poem. As to the verses on Waterloo by Mr. Liddiard, of whom likewise we had a recent occasion to speak, (see our Number for February last,) the simile of the thousand tinkers mending their kettles all at once was not more appropriately applied to the British soldiers hammering the helmets, &c. of the brazen-armed cuirassiers, than it might be to the British poets hammering their wits and stunning their hearers with panegyrics on Wellington and Waterloo.

'Remembered, aye, shall be St. Jean,  
Writ in the British Kalendar!'

So sings the present author; and so sing half a hundred of his competitors. Can our readers wish or expect us to quote another couplet of this very common-place performance?

Art. 15. *The Battle of Waterloo*; a Poem. By Robert Gilmour. Late Captain of the First West India Regiment. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Earle. 1816.

"What! will the line stretch on to the crack o'doom?"

We have Waterloo bonnets, and Waterloo biscuits, and Waterloo *wherewithals* of every description: but in no species of the Waterloo genus is England so abundantly prolific at the present moment as in the poetical. Not contented with this theme, however, Captain Gilmour intends to go on to *Acre*, (*Porrectus novem per jugera*), to write an epic poem called the *Acriad*, and in twenty-four cantos to celebrate the praises of the Lion-hearted King. The work is announced for publication, and we wish the author success in so lion-hearted an undertaking. At present, we must return to Waterloo.

#### ADVERTISEMENT.

'The author, in the following attempt, has not had any design of setting himself up as a rival to Mr. Scott. When he read his "Field of Waterloo," it occurred to him that the battle had not been described with his usual force, and was very unequal to his "Flodden Field," his "Bannoch-burn," and even the attack on the Highlanders in his "Lady of the Lake." Perhaps a modern battle does not admit of that length and variety of description which an ancient one might afford. The author has chosen the heroic metre, divested of rhyme, for his poem; not because he could not write any other sort of measure, but thinking it the most noble, and because he intends it as a specimen of his style of composition, in order to court the favour of the public to a far more weighty and more laborious undertaking, which has already engaged him for years; viz. a National Epic Poem.'

We shall introduce our readers to that description of the battle, which, *without any intention of rivaling Mr. Scott*, Capt. G. must have laboured as much as any other portion of his poem, and probably more.

' The strife began : thick flash'd the flaming light  
 From mortar and from gun, and after heard,  
 The volley pealed. It is not fall of night,  
 Yet the pale day is overcast with gloom  
 And swords and bayonets, infantry and horse,  
 Lost in the darkness ! 'Tis the livid hue  
 That waits on each discharge, whose sombre wreath  
 Shadows the fighting hosts ! So when the spouts  
 Of giant Ætna, on the golden Sun  
 Disgorge their whirlwinds of impetuous flame,  
 And the red lava runs ; in pitchy clouds  
 The smoke aspires, and darkening, overcasts  
 The firmament, that half the nations lie  
 Under the cope of night. So battle's cloud  
 Darkened the hosts, and hid with dreary veil  
 The slaughter on each side. Man dropped on man,  
 Shouts mixed with groans and never-ceasing cries  
 Of animating chiefs. Peal followed peal,  
 Flash followed flash, and whistling shrill, the ball  
 Drove on, in globe, or scattering iron hail.  
 Still streams the British standard thro' the mist,  
 Still the gold eagle glitters o'er the Gaul.  
 What rush is that, that, like to thunder, rocks  
 The hollow ground ? Encanopied in smoke,  
 Onward it rolls. " Stand, Britons ! firmly stand !  
 Swerve not an inch ! The Cuirassiers advance  
 In steel of proof ! The Polack with his spear  
 Speeds to the charge ! " And nobly did ye stand,  
 Sons of the white-cliffed Isle ! Not brighter beams  
 The glance of beauty from your lovely fair,  
 Than from your eyes, untamed by coward fear  
 The soul undaunted flashed ! Tho' fierce the gun  
 Rent your close squares ; tho' midst your serried ranks  
 The shell exploded ; ankle-deep in blood  
 Ye stood, fast rooted as your native rocks !  
 Knee locked in knee, on shoulder shoulder pressed,  
 Bayonet on bayonet stretched, and levelled tubes  
 In deadly row, th' indissoluble squares  
 Defied all force, and rapid as the flash  
 Sent from the bosom of a thund'rous cloud,  
 Shot after shot, the running volley flew.  
 Man, courser, chieftain, eagle, blade, and spear,  
 Together dropped. In mingled carnage wild  
 Humbled they lay, and shrinking with affright,  
 The rest recoiled. Loud pealed the British cheers.'

This passage will enable our readers to judge fairly of the  
 author's merits : but we confess that we do not think so well of  
 the rest of his poem as of this extract. The account of the  
 subsequent events of the battle is prolonged beyond even the  
 most heroic patience ; and we have too much noise and rattle,

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with too little (indeed none) of the contrast of repose, throughout the work. The speeches put into the mouths of Lord Wellington and Bonaparte, although comparatively short, yet revolt us by our knowledge of their fictitious nature; and this is one of the necessary evils of contemporary poetry, unless it will cramp and confine itself to a mere versification of the Gazette. It can have no verisimilitude unless restrained to the narrowest bounds of representation; and in either case it is to a degree unsatisfactory.

The author has interposed an unnecessary, and we think an injudicious, burst of commiseration for the fate of Marshal Ney; and the English are attacked by an Englishman for not preventing his fate. It is curious to see one poet accusing us for not becoming the executioners of Europe\*; and another finding fault with the want of our interference to prevent the executions of a foreign nation.

Captain Gilmour anticipates the censure of criticism for the mode in which he has spoken of his future epic poem; which, however, if it shall indeed deserve the high title of a *National Epic*, (the strange desideratum of our literature,) we shall be most ready to welcome with all our tributes of applause, whatever may be their value:—but we are bound to admonish him that, to expect Milton's approbation from Heaven, he must learn and labour much more in the art of poetry than he seems to have hitherto done. He has displayed great spirit in the part which we have quoted: but such phrases as 'the deathful fray could learn you,' which occurs at p. 18., and 'roll them all in blood,' p. 26., must be struck out of the "*Acriad*" before it can hope for success.

**Art. 16. Songs and occasional Poems, on various Subjects.**

By Captain Hall, of the Indian Army.} Second Edition. 12mo.  
6s. Boards. Black and Co. 1815.

"*Quid nos nocebit tentare?*" asks Captain Hall. We are sorry to answer, it will shew that our motto is very queer Latin PROSE, and most of our book very moderate English VERSE. Still, we must allow that we are here presented with several songs ('The Recommendation,' especially,) which in a private company of friends, or at a public dinner, perhaps, would be amusing; but no solicitation of friends should beguile a man into the publication of such trifles as those that are before us. At the end of the collection, is an epigram intitled 'A bad Pun:' but it has no better title to this character than many of its brethren in the volume which are not so designated. Some of the best *jeux d'esprit* are old; such as the epigram on the lawyer who had no effects, from having no causes, &c.

We transcribe one of the serious little pieces, on account of the commendable spirit which suggested it:

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\* See our account of *The Poet's Pilgrimage* in this Number, Art. IX.

\* *Address to Julia, on Dress.*

' Dear Julia, veil thy bosom, pray,  
 Not cast blest virtue's shield away :  
 Let baneful fashion ne'er displace  
 The modest blush, so wont to grace  
 That sweet, that fascinating face !  
 Thy charms were never meant to prove  
 Attractive, save to virtuous love !  
 Thy ev'ry grace was giv'n to inspire  
 No earthly wish, but chaste desire.  
 Remember that the sweetest flower  
 Must perish by exposure's power !  
 If winter's blast destroys at will,  
 The blast of scandal's keener still !  
 Such outward signs, too oft we find,  
 Are class'd as emblems of the mind ;  
 While the impressions they impart,  
 Allure the eye, but never gain the heart !'

Art. 17. *Relics of Melodino* ; translated by Edward Lawson, Esq.  
 from an unpublished Manuscript, dated 1645. 8vo. pp. 244.  
 10s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

The title-page of this volume excited, in course, our suspicions  
 that the stale and not very ingenious fiction of the age had been  
 adopted ; and that we had here another *Lauder*, or *Macpherson*,  
 or *Chatterton*, or *Ireland* : but an examination of the preface, in  
 which sundry Spanish scholars, and among others *Mr. Southey*,  
 are said to have been consulted, and in which we discover evident  
 marks of a mind not inconsiderately exercised in collateral in-  
 quiries, convinced us that, if there be any imposition, the author  
 of the volume is among the persons deceived. Yet no such name  
 as *Melodino* is to be discovered in the history of Spanish or Por-  
 tuguese literature, if such a distinction can be made in the *Penin-*  
*sula* ; and, since the author gives no reasons for receiving it as a  
 real title, but merely states his own bias in favour of that opinion,  
 we must be regarded as by no means professing to criticize a  
 translation from a real original of the 17th century.

However this may be, considerable merit is displayed in some  
 of the thoughts scattered through these pages ; and, although  
 the translator's versification be somewhat cramped, and his phrase-  
 ology rather forced, he has yet transfused or created an energy  
 on some occasions, and an elegance on others, which distinguish  
 the work from many of its ephemeral brethren. Several of the  
 anachronisms, particularly in the '*Tears of Dido*,' (the first poem  
 in the volume,) are sufficiently in unison with the age and nation  
 assigned to the poet. For instance ; *at Carthage, in the time of*  
*Dido,*

— ' Jove himself the work of *Phidias* fears ;'

and we are told of the '*Greek Armada* : — although this may be  
 allowable : but whether it be in very good taste is another question.  
 I quote some pretty lines intitled '*Warnings for Beauty* :'  
 P 2

' The

- ' The sun declines in curtained shade :  
How soon does Morn to Evening fade !  
That bubbling Fountain, which o'erflows  
So prodigal of molten snows,  
To-morrow will ignobly creep,  
And hardly have a drop to weep.  
That stately Lily, by its streams,  
Which Flora's ivory sceptre seems,  
Even while upon its pomp you gaze,  
Its virgin whiteness visibly decays !
- ' The Goldfinch, on yon willow's bough,  
His lively trill abandons now :  
That Willow waves, with lightest air,  
And, weeping, droops like wan Despair ;  
Yon proud Corinthian Colonnade,  
Where fluted jasper shone display'd,  
By creeping ivy now upborne,  
Swings, like a culprit wretch, high hung in chains of scorn.
- ' That Bark, so proud with silken vanes,  
Anon a helpless wreck remains.  
Those Waves, that thunder'd on the strand,  
Now gently lick the glistening sand.  
Thus Time (our foe, and even his own,)  
To universal change is prone ;  
He flies : nor boots it to pursue.  
Quick ! seize him, Phillis ! ere he seize on you.'

The preface, as we have intimated, displays Spanish and Portuguese scholarship ; and the notes have fresh recommendations of a similar nature.

Art. 18. *Sir Bertram*, a Poem, in Six Cantos. By J. Roby.  
8vo. pp. 195. 7s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

This is a poem which we can conscientiously recommend to any nursery-maid who has the care of a restless child. There is a something so irresistibly soothing and monotonous in the flow of the versification, with such a delightful *unawakening hackneyism* of incident and character throughout, that even the irritation of nettles-rash, or the acute agonies of teeth-cutting, must yield to this anodyne composition.

- ' Far to the west the blue mist sunk away,  
And far the angry tempest roll'd ;  
The sun had brighten'd every hill so gay,  
And tinged each airy cliff with radiant gold.  
The pearly dew-drop sparkled bright,  
On many a leaf, and flower so fair ;  
The violet sweet had woo'd the light,  
And shed fresh fragrance thro' the morning air.'

Page 33.

We can present to our readers only a few more detached beauties of '*Sir Bertram*,' and then must bid adieu to that gentle publication ;

which is far from arousing the uneasy species of curiosity and almost painful interest that were excited by its namesake, "Sir Bertram," of "Elegant Extracts" memory. In one point, indeed, we could have wished that the tales had borne a closer resemblance; and that the latter, by breaking off at the second canto instead of extending to the sixth, had deserved, like the former, the honourable and attractive title of "a Fragment."

At page 16. (which we would advise the nursery-maid to omit, from its accidental noisiness,)

— ' Discord tremendous rear'd  
Her bloodstain'd banner waving high;  
And in her red right arm she bar'd  
The murderous brand with furious joy,  
Uplifted, glittering to the sky.'

Did not a poet of the name of Campbell, in a work intitled "Pleasures of Hope," observe some few years since in a similar manner, on the (somewhat bombastic) horrors of the scene,

"Where murder bar'd her arm?" &c. &c.

and when we read, page 19. that

'The crackling faggots fly,'

are we mistaken in attributing to one Goldsmith a line of some similarity, in an obscure little ballad called "Edwin and Angelina?"

"The crackling faggot flies?"

At page 21. the hero flings the heroine on the floor:

— ' On the slippery floor he flings  
A form in female garments dress'd.'

At page 22.

'The waking warriors rub their eyes.'

This is being true to Nature, in a most exemplary manner.

At page 28. we see

'The cheerful day-light flees.'

At page 35. we have 'enthron'd' rhyming to 'land.'

At page 40.

'Perception fled;

and, being afraid of the consequences, we must here close the volume in a mixture of distraction, doubt, and despair.

Art. 19. *Poems*, by Mr. Alfred Bunn. 8vo. pp. 43. Chapple. 1816.

The Dedication, the Preface, and the Introduction to these poems are so unique, that we consider each as a Phoenix in its kind. The cheerful strain of reasonable panegyric adopted in the first, the easy frankness of the second, and the nature of the third, exceed all rivalry and all description. We beg leave, therefore, to transcribe



scribe the whole three for the amusement and the edification of our readers; and we need not add for their *imitation* also, should any of them be afflicted with the *sacer ignis*, or St. Anthony's Fire, of Publication.

*' Dedication to Leigh Hunt, Esq. \**

*' Sir,*

*' It is with feelings of peculiar delight, and equal satisfaction, I intrude upon the public attention, and your more valuable time, the subjoined trifles; and, as it would be impossible to detail, in this confined limit, my every delicacy of sentiment on the subject, I shall devote that pleasurable task to the calm recluse of private intercourse.*

*- ' Under this impulse, I shall indulge, in very prescribed terms, upon my views. When I survey the extensive hemisphere of literature, where I presume to fix my feeble effulgency, I am dazzled by the brilliant array that surrounds me on every side; yet, gazing with proud surprize on the *partial* gleaming of one of its brightest constellations, I am encouraged to glance forth, with less reserve, under so auspicious a reflection. But even in this revolution of thought — amidst these doubts and fears, so naturally incidental to a youthful mind, I dare to rise — superior to them all.*

*' To you, alone, I owe that pleasing satisfaction—to you, who have, thus, introduced me — unknowing and unknown — and invested me with the great sanction — the valuable privilege — of subscribing myself, very sincerely,*

*' Your obliged and obedient Servant,*

*' London,  
March 23. 1816.'*

*' ALFRED BUNN.'*

*' Preface.*

*' Having waded, with some degree of difficulty, through the compositions — proofs — revises — and other enigmatical arrangements, of my publisher and myself, we have, at last, by mutual assistance, collected the whole together, as here introduced. As it is not my intention to make any apologies to the Public, or any concessions to those Literary Presidencies, which may intend to honour me with their reviews, I shall be brief in my observations. The trifles, here brought forward, are, as must appear from an impartial perusal of them, the productions of a fanciful and very young man — they are published at the desire of a few individuals, whose kindness in the request was probably as foolish, as my vanity in the compliance therewith; yet, in gaining their good opinion and estimation, I have reached the zenith of my ambition.*

*' Whatever lenity or partiality the unknown reader may shew me, will be my sole instigation to make a future intrusion upon him —*

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*\* We believe that we omitted, in our review of "The Story of Rimini," (Art. III. of this Number,) to notice Mr. Hunt's dedication of that poem to Lord Byron. For 'easy frankness,' it may perhaps vie with the preface of Mr. Alfred Bunn. Rev.*

*and*

and what may be his opinion, or the consequences arising therefrom, must be left to the sequel.

‘ This is all I have to offer upon the subject.

A. B.\*

‘ *Introduction.*

‘ By Nature planted — and by Nature rear’d —  
 Uncultur’d emblem of Life’s chequer’d gleam —  
 Fresh from no dew-drop — by no sunshine chear’d,  
 To animate its fade that fondly seem,  
 A humble flow’ret woos the summer-beam !  
 Ye stormy winds, awhile your flight delay,  
 That frets the current of its vital stream :  
 Oh, let it bloom its short-liv’d — languid day —  
 Then — in the lapse of Time — die silently away !’

The sagacious reader may easily guess the contents of a book which is thus ushered into the world.

Art. 20. *Verses for Grave-Stones in Church Yards.* By a Parish Minister. 8vo. Nos. I. and II. 2s. 6d. Baldwin and Co.

If the poetical pieces, with which Pope recorded the virtues of his departed friends, were justly termed “ Epitaphs to let,” we have here a very large assortment of the same species of rhymes, adapted to every description of customer ; insomuch that it is scarcely possible for any person, of whatever rank, age, or station, to meet his end in any assignable variety of form or circumstance, without his friends being able immediately, by a consultation of the index prefixed to these pages, to find the whole history of the fatal event, with the character of the deceased, faithfully delineated. Should a luckless youth, for instance, chance to be precipitated out of a boat into the stream, the first page of the index will refer to p. 16. for an epitaph on

‘ *A young Man drowned in a River.*

‘ O had this youth the art of *swimming* learnt,  
 Which boys soon learn, and never do forget,  
 Not broken-hearted would his parents be,  
 By a light boat, in hurry overset.’

This is not much better than the old nursery-poetry about the *Three Children sliding on the Ice* ; and if the reverend author intended to prevent the occurrence, now much too frequent, of paltry and even ridiculous epitaphs, by furnishing a good stock out of which those who needed a supply might chuse, we may approve his object but cannot compliment him on the execution of it. Those who examine the epitaphs in country-church-yards are too often led to regret that the precepts of morality, and the awful truths of religion, which should always be clothed in language the most forcible and striking, are on these occasions placed in danger of losing their beneficial effect, by appearing in a contemptible or a ludicrous form. In such cases, we are obliged to recollect the well known lines,

“ To laugh were want of decency and grace,  
 Yet to be grave exceeds the power of face.”

P 4

We

We deprecate any pun on the last line: but we once heard an incorrigible punster say, "When he looks on these grave-stones, a man must be a stone to be grave."

In reading the epitaph above cited, the subject of which is one of the most awful visitations of Heaven, namely, the sudden dissolution of youth, it is scarcely possible to refrain from smiling; and we were sorry to find no better lesson inculcated on such an occasion, than the necessity and benefits of learning to swim. If the whole collection resembled this, and in compositions professedly religious none of the consolations and hopes of religion were introduced, which here they are not, we should deem it our duty to pass a severe sentence on it: but this is far from being the case; though it might be difficult to point out any one inscription which merits the name of poetry in a much greater degree than the specimen that we have given.

Art. 21. *Elegy on the National Character.* By Peter Pratt.  
12mo. 1s. 6d. Pesenmeyer.

Of the political sentiments of this little piece we will say nothing: but Mr. Pratt must forgive us if we confess that we have failed in being much edified by the poetry of it. 'Exalt ye honour's path pursued' is rather too strong an instance of the ellipsis to be admissible into so concise a poem. The following stanza, too, betrays symptoms of *nonchalance*; and the second line, in particular, gives no very favourable idea of the author's ear for harmony:

'The courteous victors scarce withdrew  
Europe's *musæ* behind them leaving,  
Ere Gallic genius flash'd anew,  
Ambitious, fond of change, deceiving.' P. 9.

We entirely sympathize with Mr. P. in his regret that the masculine powers of Englishmen are so strangely misapplied in 'fingering lace,' and 'looping ribbands,' behind a counter: but we must think that the improvement, which he suggests, would be at least of a doubtful nature; viz. that they should become assistants to laundresses:

'The laundry haunt, the mangle ply, &c.' P. 19.

To the offer of such a remedy as this, we should feel disposed to answer in the words of Jacqueline, in Moliere's *Médecin malgré lui*: "*Je suis votre servante, mais j'aime bien mieux qu'on ne me guérisse pas.*"

Art. 22. *The Life and Lucubrations of Crispinus Scriblerus*: a Novel in Verse, written in the last Century: with Annotations and Commentaries. By a Friend. 8vo, pp. 90. Sold at No. 211. Oxford Street,

The editor of this precious performance is justly intitled to our thanks for having published a part only, and not the whole, of his friend's manuscript. The artless Crispin, whose chief merit appears to have consisted in '*sliding through life,*' in company with '*one little corp, a puny pig,*' and a proportionable stock of poultry, may

may (for aught that we know to the contrary) have been a very good kind of person: but whosoever wrote his life and lustrations may be assured that he never was a poet. That this opinion, on so important a point, may not appear without sufficient authority, we will present our readers with a few specimens of the writer's style, as they chance to fall beneath our notice.

- ' Crispinus' parents, true preceptors, taught,  
No flying happiness could e'er be caught:  
Nor by *sham* precepts, or example, show'd,  
Bliss might be found in vice's wretched road.' P. 81.
- ' His friends ne'er 'TICED him to the hateful haunts  
Where luxury riots, or seduction *chaunts* !' P. 83.
- ' Ne'er wrapt his frame in rich fantastic stole,  
To turn, on trifles, his aspiring soul.  
Prompting to hope respect from vain attire,  
Which only fops admit, and fools admire !  
Taught passion's *rabble-rout*, suborned by pride,  
Ne'er let Heav'n's blessings in loose hearts abide.' P. 83, 4.

At the conclusion, the author deprecates the censure of criticism, by submitting it to his reader whether Crispin may not display

- ' More piety, than impious proud high-priests,  
Who *look like cherubs*, but who *live like beasts* ?  
Teach others how to live, and how to die,  
But act themselves, *as tho' 'twere all a lie* ?' P. 90.

On this point, only one opinion can be formed: but, were not the whole performance too ridiculous to be treated with gravity, we might severely reprobate the sentiments contained in these latter lines. If the virtues of Crispin were highly commendable, why should his praises be sung at the expense of the characters of his reverend brethren, thus "blasted in a breath?"

We trust that we shall not hereafter have occasion to exclaim,

*" Ecce iterum Crispinus !"*

#### NOVEL.

Art. 23. *Glenarvon*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Colburn, 1816.

This is altogether a strange publication. It is generally understood to proceed from the pen of a lady of rank and excentricity, the daughter of an Irish Earl, and wife of the heir to an English Viscount; and to contain a delineation of her own life, as well as of the lives of the principal personages introduced. We have even on our table an index to the real and the fictitious names, as they are commonly identified in the circles of fashion and of literary gossiping. It is not allowable for us, therefore, to consider the work as a mere romance; while its story includes so many events that are material deviations from the actual history of the persons implicated, that we cannot view it as wholly a narrative of facts. We may truly say, then, that it is of the *doubtful gender*, though a feminine

feminine production; for its morality and its literary merit are also of a similarly mixed character. It is not without marks of genius, yet it is wearisome and even unpleasing: it is (as we have stated) partly a record of facts, yet its incidents are often revoltingly improbable; and it may be made useful as a warning against passion, imprudence, and vice, yet its appeal to the taste of its readers would frequently be of dubious success, and its effect on their minds be of ambiguous tendency. It is one of

— “those things we know not what to call,  
Their generation's so equivocal;”

and, with this appropriately indecisive account of it, we leave it to the uncertainty of fate.

#### CLASSICS, EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 24. *Grammatical Figures*, and a System of Rhetoric, illustrated by Examples of Classical Authority, for the Use of senior Forms in Grammar-Schools. By the Rev. G. Whittaker, A.M. Author of the “*Latin Exercises*,” &c. 12mo. pp. 89. Law and Whittaker.

We have no doubt that this little book will be useful to pupils who are somewhat advanced in classical knowledge, and who are endowed with some share of perseverance in the pursuit of a dry study; but to the younger tyro, we apprehend, it will be found perfectly unintelligible, unless indeed frequently accompanied by the oral instruction of the preceptor. — To his explanation of the grammatical figures, the author has added a short system of rhetoric, together with some observations on verbs, participles, and prepositions in composition; a perusal of which, we think, will be productive of advantage to persons who have a turn for reflection, and an inclination to cultivate the Latin tongue. At the conclusion of the volume, the derivations of figurative and other difficult terms are alphabetically arranged.

Art. 25. *Ovidii Metamorphoses, in usum Scholarum excerptæ; quibus accedunt Notulæ Anglicæ, et Questiones: Studio C. Bradley.* 12mo. pp. 242. 4s. 6d. Bound. Longman and Co. 1816.

Mr. Bradley appears to have bestowed some time and attention on the important task of correctly editing our ordinary school-books, and has here presented to the public a cheap and useful edition of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*. The text is clearly, and, on the whole, correctly printed. The notes, which are all in the English language, are given in a plain, easy, and simple style; and we are glad to observe that a sufficient degree of attention appears to have been paid to the rare and happy art of exciting the curiosity and the powers of the youthful understanding to the object proposed for its attainment. Mr. B. has also kept in view the necessity of frequently illustrating the sense of the poet, and for this purpose has intermingled with the notes some translations of obscure passages, and added to them his own remarks. At the conclusion, is subjoined a regular series of questions, adapted to the several chapters, by which the learner will be enabled to acquire

acquire much necessary information, previously to examination before his preceptor.

Art. 26. *Æsopi Fabulæ selectæ*; with English Notes, for the Use of Schools. With English Fables from Croxall's *Æsop*, intended as First Exercises for Translations into Latin. 12mo. Bound. Law and Whittaker.

The editor of this little volume flatters himself with the hope of being serviceable to the young student, by presenting to him a correct Latin text of *Æsop's Fables*, illustrated with notes; which, he acknowledges, are taken in a great measure 'from a Latin grammar, written in English, and now very generally used.' We believe that he means the grammar of Dr. Valpy. With the view also of facilitating the progress of the young beginner in the principles of grammatical science, he has prefixed to the fables some extracts from a MS. belonging to a friend, intitled, "Explanation of Lilly's Syntaxis, compiled for the Benefit of Kirton-School, in Lincoln Holland, A.D. 1729; by Francis Wareup." The whole, we conceive, is well calculated in every respect to answer the purpose of elementary instruction: but we see no reason for its superseding the established use of *Phædrus*, either in a public or a private system of education.

## RELIGIOUS.

Art. 27. *The leading Heads of Twenty-seven Sermons*, preached at Northampton, by Philip Doddridge, D.D. in the Year 1749; and taken in Short Hand by a Lady, at whose Death they were presented to and transcribed by the Reverend T. Hawkins, of Warley, near Halifax, Yorkshire. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

We are disposed to receive with satisfaction any thing connected with the name of Dr. Doddridge, and purporting to be even a small relic of the works of that truly pious and eminent character. Of the accuracy of the transcription of the notes now given to us, those who have received the benefits of the pastoral care and private friendship of the alleged author may be considered as the ablest judges: it is possible that such persons may here recognize the traces of the departed fire: but we fear that those who knew him only as the author of "The Family Expositor" would be rather disposed to say, on considering these "heads" and "sketches" of a mighty trunk,

*"Quantum mutatus ab illo!"*

Art. 28. *The Young warned against the Enticement of Sinners*, in Two Discourses on Proverbs i. 10. By the Reverend Andrew Thomson, A.M. Minister of St. George's, Edinburgh. 12mo. pp. 114. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

The leading features of these two discourses are simplicity and perspicuity. Utility, not ostentation, appears to have been the author's object, and he has kept steadily to his purpose, without attempting any display of oratorical talents. The sermons indicate such a warmth of feeling, such a propriety of sentiment, and  
such

such a freedom from affectation, that we can imagine them to have been heard with much satisfaction; and we should hope that they would produce beneficial effects not merely on the young, to whom they were principally addressed, but on persons also of a more advanced age.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 29. *Four Dissertations, Moral and Religious*, addressed to the Rising Generation: I. On Covetousness. II. On Hypocrisy. III. On the Prosperous Condition of Men in this World. IV. On Continuance in Well-doing. 8vo. pp. 68. Nichols and Co.

As the necessity of inculcating just sentiments of morality and religion in the minds of the rising generation is obvious, and the benefits thence resulting are of the most important nature, we are unwilling to withhold our approbation from any attempt to promote so desirable an object. If the means, of which the author of these essays has made use, be not altogether proportionate to the end which he has had in view, they may yet, we think, contribute in a degree towards the ultimate attainment of it: his efforts are at least something thrown into the general stock, which may be productive of utility, and ought not to lose their reward.

Art. 30. *Theology and Mythology of the Antient Pagans*, written particularly for Female Education. By Miss Hatfield. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons.

The design of this publication is to meet the wishes, and obviate the objections, of those parents who conceive the study of the Heathen mythology to be prejudicial to the interests of morality and revealed religion: but this is an opinion so contradictory to reason, that we cannot feel persuaded of its existence to any great extent. If, however, we see no great necessity for this undertaking, we have no objection to the fair author's intention, and we think that her work will prove an acceptable addition to the book-case of female readers.

Art. 31. *The Mourner Comforted: or Consoling Reflections for Parents in the Loss of a Child.* 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

Although the anonymous author of these sheets appears to be endowed with a degree of piety which is highly creditable to the excellence of his heart, we conceive, from his style, that he has not been much accustomed to the art of composition. His language wants simplicity and conciseness, his sentences are without connection, and he is often betrayed into repetition. The circumstance, however, of the subject having been so judiciously treated before him, by abler pens, may have contributed to throw the present writer somewhat into the shade; and we confess that, on the interesting topic of religious consolation, our own minds have been so long habituated to the unrivalled and energetic language of the Rambler and the Idler, that perhaps our taste may have been rendered fastidious.

Art.

Art. 32. *A Letter to a Friend of Robert Burns*; occasioned by an intended Republication of the Account of the Life of Burns by Dr. Currie; and of the Selection made by him from his Letters. By William Wordsworth. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co. 1816.

We honestly confess ourselves to be delighted with this little pamphlet. It speaks our own sentiments throughout, and in a manner in which we should have been very glad to have expressed them. In truth, the object of Mr. Wordsworth must be that of every man of decorous feeling in the country; to check, we mean, the exuberant passion in the age for the most injudicious and most injurious exhibition of the faults and follies of departed men of genius. Though we are far from thinking that Dr. Currie's work offended in this way to a degree by any means equal to that which has appeared in several other biographical publications, yet, with all our acknowledgement of the general attractiveness of the Doctor's biography, we must agree with Mr. Wordsworth on the point in question, and decidedly maintain that *all* should be told, or very little, of the lives of authors whose works have unfortunately not been kept in countenance by those lives. In a word, the public should either be enabled to judge candidly, by a complete explanation of motives and the gradual acquirement of habits, of every external and accidental circumstance which can have impressed or contributed to impress a character on the mind; or it should not be misled by imperfect accounts: so true is it, as the exquisite and interesting poet who gives occasion for this 'Letter' has reminded us, as Mr. Wordsworth has quoted that poet, and as we have often felt with him before;

“ One point must still be greatly dark,  
 The moving *why* they do it;  
 And just as lamely can ye mark  
 How far, perhaps, they rue it.  
 Who made the heart, 'tis *He* alone  
 Decidedly can try us;  
 He knows each chord — its various tone —  
 Each spring — its secret bias.  
 Then at the balance let's be mute,  
 We never can adjust it;  
 What's done we partly may compute,  
 But know not what's *resisted*.”

It is scarcely possible to select, from the few pages before us, any detached passage, without weakening the general effect of the argument, which we strongly recommend to the attention of all our readers: especially to those who, in their imagined ardour for the developement of moral truth, — for *facts*, as they call them, relating to the human mind, — forget that this hunting after isolated and unexplained *facts* is the most bewildering pursuit to which the judgement can be exposed. They have nearly the same chance of finding truth in the low curiosity that catches at detached and ill-omened anecdotes relating to distinguished characters



ters in common conversation, or even in the captious questions of some hackneyed pottfogger of the law, as in their own suspicious enthusiasm for an object that is unattainable in the mode in which they pursue it. We agree with Mr. Wordsworth that these 'remorseless hunters after matter of fact rank among the blindest of human beings.' It is rare, indeed, that any thing like a patient philosophical investigation of a whole question, in all its bearings and dependencies, can be expected in these insatiable querists; whose minds resemble a mass of dry and unconnected chips from various blocks, and do not even deserve the title of a *bundle of faggots*.

Art. 33. *A Letter addressed to an English Lady of Fashion at Paris.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

Twenty-seven pages of this pamphlet may be read, and the reader be tempted to exclaim, Why is this well meaning but commonplace representation of the irreligion of the times, the faults in fashionable education, and the deficiencies in fashionable dress, to be directed to an English lady at Paris?—when, lo, at the bottom of the said page 27., the writer recalls *her* (we suppose) wandering pen, and states the object of the letter to be 'to point out the dangers attendant upon our visiting France; the errors to be avoided, and the warning to be taken. And here it appears to me that one of the greatest dangers we run by staying for any length of time at Paris is the learning from its inhabitants to slight the observance of the Sabbath. The great bulwark of all true religion is the proper observance of this day, for if we begin the week with attending the house of God, and studying his holy word, when we return to our own houses, we shall be prepared to pass the remainder of the week conformably to the sacred laws of our Creator and Redeemer.—If, on the contrary, the Sabbath is spent in buying and selling; in frequenting the opera and the playhouse; or joining in the festive dance, how can we have time for looking back on the week that is past, or forward to that which is to come? In vain may we expect the blessing of the Almighty if we will not make use of the means appointed to procure that blessing. And can we pretend to love and fear God, while we turn our feet from his ways and follow our own pleasure?'

After some farther remarks on the dangers and the objections attending a stay in the French metropolis, the letter thus concludes: 'Let us then, my dear friend, exert all the persuasion in our power to prevail on our countrymen, after having gratified curiosity, to leave the shores of France, and return to the post allotted them. To labour in that post with all the skill and zeal in their power; to stop the torrent of vice; to spread the truths of the Gospel; to render this nation virtuous and pious; and to help, as far as may be, to bring down the blessing of Heaven upon our Sion.'

This pious and sensible writer laments that the passion for finery in dress has descended even to the cottage; where 'those who cannot purchase a flannel petticoat, or a piece of calico for an

under garment for their little daughter, will yet contrive to deck her out in ear-rings and necklaces, in artificial flowers, and gew-gaws of various descriptions, which are got at a cheap rate, of the pedlars who hawk this set of trumpery from door to door, and entice the poor women to lay out their pence, which ought to be hoarded up to pay for the necessaries of life.' Surely, we need not remind the (fair) author that *flannel petticoats* can no longer be considered among '*the necessaries of life*,' even in this variable climate!

Art. 34. *The Labyrinth demolished; or the Pioneer of rational Philosophy.* By James Gilchrist, Author of "*Reason the true Arbiter of Language.*" 8vo. pp. 47. Hunter. 1815.

In our lxxvith volume, p. 334., we noticed the former work by this author, of which the present pamphlet is in fact a continuation. The style, as before, is declamatory, metaphorical, and full of allusions: but the declamations are lively, the metaphors picturesque, and the allusions recondite. Still, it is a style better adapted for the orator than the writer; — for the extempore-preacher than for the philosophical inquirer; — and the matter is almost buried, like a cenotaph in a garden, beneath the flowery shrubs and spreading willows that are planted to overshadow the pensive spot.

So much for the character of the *Preparatory Operations*, as they are here called, of the introductory section; the second part is intitled the *Labyrinth invested*. The author begins with the proposition that every simple word consists only of one syllable: but we deny the fact. The name of the *cuckoo*, for instance, is a simple word, which must ever have been dissyllabic, or it would not imitate the note of the bird which it depicts.

Shortly afterward, we are told (p. 22.) that *Gyre*, *year*, *hour*, *while*, and *wheel*, are only the same word differently spelt: but we demur to this assertion also. *Gyre* is derived from a Greek root signifying a *bend*: — *Year* is from a Gothic root signifying *harvest*: — *Hour* is from a Latin root, which probably signifies the *side*: — *While* is from a Gothic root signifying *rest*; — and *Wheel* is found in the Icelandic and Anglo-saxon dialects, and seems to describe by onomatopœia the whining noise of a body whirled in the air by means of a string; it is a compound word, which may be analyzed into the *twirling instrument*. These five words, we repeat, have nothing in common, neither derivation nor signification.

So again we are told in the same page, and as erroneously, that *welkin*, *world*, and *horizon*, all signify *great circle*: but *welkin* is the plural of *wolke*, cloud; *world* is from *wirren*, to croud, though Leibnitz derives it mistakenly from *to whirl*; — our forefathers could not know that the world turns round; — and *horizon* has a Greek root, meaning *boundary*.

Many similar marks of haste occur. It is selecting for imitation the worst feature of Horne Tooke's work (a fault most ably exposed by his antagonist Cassander,) to coin derivations by inference,

ference, instead of attaining them by research. We recommend to this writer, who certainly wants neither talents nor eloquence, to learn thoroughly two or three of the Gothic dialects, before he hazards any more etymological assertions.

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### CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a note from Lord Sheffield, relative to our account of Gibbon's *Miscellanies* in our last Review, which it seems necessary to lay before the reader :

' Lord Sheffield has but this moment seen the *Monthly Review* for May last. He is sorry that the Editor has seen only the third volume, quarto, of Mr. Gibbon's *Miscellaneous Works*. That edition is greatly inferior to the octavo edition, and in the advertisement to the latter certain circumstances are explained which the Editor seems to require. Considerable additions are made and interwoven with the *Memoirs*, a great many new notes, and several interesting letters which are not in the quarto edition. All the essays and compositions, both of the first and of the new edition, are classed according to their several subjects, under the following heads; viz. Historical and Critical; — Classical and Critical; — Miscellaneous; — and arranged according to the times when they were written. The letters formerly published and the new are also arranged according to their dates. The advertisement to the octavo edition contains various information which may be useful to a reviewer. The octavo edition is greatly superior in every respect to the quarto edition, and a fair and satisfactory review cannot be made from the latter. Therefore Lord Sheffield strongly recommends to the Reviewer to examine the octavo edition before he publishes the second part of the Review.'

The first sheet of this Number, which contains the conclusion of the article in question, was printed off before Lord Sheffield's note reached us, and consequently we have not been able to follow his Lordship's 'recommendation.' Nor have we yet seen the octavo edition, of which we presume the above letter will be a sufficient notice. We cannot think, however, that the purchasers of the quarto edition will deem themselves very fortunate, when they are told that the octavo 'is greatly superior in every respect;' and they will be inclined to ask why the impression which is published in a superior form, and at a superior price, should be of such greatly inferior merit. Time did not urge the appearance of the quarto, nor has any great interval elapsed (we believe) between that event and the publication of the octavo.

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Various other letters have been received, to which we shall attend as occasion may require.

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\* \* The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXIX. of the M. R. was published with the Number for May on the 1st of June.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1816.

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**ART. I.** *Travels in the Ionian Isles, Albania, Thessaly, Macedonia, &c., during the Years 1812 and 1813.* By Henry Holland, M.D. F.R.S. &c. &c. 4to. pp. 550. with 13 Engravings. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

**T**HE present age has been so fertile in surveys of Greece and the Grecian islands, that a modest traveller finds it expedient to commence with an apology for writing, or at least with an explanation of the reasons which induced him to publish on a subject so often treated. 'Had I,' says Dr. Holland in his preface, 'been aware that Major Leake intended to publish his "*Researches in Greece*," I should hardly have commenced my work, particularly after the valuable information recently given to the public by Mr. Douglas and Mr. Hobhouse. But, having begun the narrative, I was led to persevere from the consideration that it related to parts of the country as yet little known or described.' A farther inducement with Dr. H. to commit his writings to the press was the access to information which was afforded him by his medical attendance on Ali Pasha, and other characters of notoriety. If he be apt to trespass in prolixity of diction, we must allow that in other respects his acquirements as a scholar, a mineralogist, and a man of extensive general information, fitted him particularly for the occupation of travelling; and if it may be said that he views Greece with an eye of predilection, it may with equal justice be maintained that others found little because they went unprepared to the scene of investigation. No reflecting traveller will look in Greece for any thing but the ruins of her once flourishing cities; and even of these a large portion has necessarily disappeared, or is hidden for the present under ground. In the features of nature, at least, no room for disappointment occurs: her mountains are as lofty, her soil is as varied, and her vallies are as fertile, as we had reason to suppose from the descriptions of her antient writers; and, if her rivers fall short of expectation, what could we reasonably hope to find in a country of such limited extent and so much intersected by the sea?

VOL. LXXX.

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Dr. Holland

Dr. Holland sailed from England early in the spring of 1812, and landed at Lisbon, where he had an opportunity of viewing the celebrated lines of Torres Vedras. A farther and more important point, professionally considered, was a view of our military hospitals; all of which he had the gratification of finding in the most satisfactory state. He had visited, he says, many hospitals in Great Britain and Ireland, but had seen few that might compare in good management with those of Santarem and Abrantes; and the hospitals which he afterward saw at Vittoria and Bilboa, on his return to England through Spain, bore testimony to the same spirit of good regulation.—From Portugal, Dr. H. took his passage to Gibraltar; and, embarking there in a vessel bound to Sicily by a circuitous voyage, he had an opportunity of passing a few days in the rarely visited capital of Sardinia. On arriving at Palermo, he was equally delighted with the beauty of the situation and disgusted with the corruption of the inhabitants. Proceeding thence to Messina, he was so fortunate as to find a companion for his intended voyage to Greece, and embarked with him, in the middle of October, on board the cutter which carries the mail from Sicily to the Ionian isles. The morning of the fourth day shewed them the mountains of Cephalonia, and brought them in a few hours more into the channel which separates that island from Zante.

‘The scenery became each moment more interesting as we advanced; and after passing Capo Skenari, on the coast of Zante, a splendid panorama opened out before us. We now seemed as in a great lake: on the left hand were the mountains of Cephalonia; to the right the shores of Zante, here gradually receding towards the south, softened in character, and extending backwards into rich and luxuriant plains, covered with vineyards, olive-groves, gardens, and villas. In front of the view, and forming a great semicircle to the eye, appeared the sacred shores of the ancient Greece, upon which we now gazed for the first time. The outline of this coast, though yet far distant, shewed us distinctly the opening of the Gulph of Corinth to the Ionian sea; soon, indeed, closed in by the mountains of Achaia and Acarnania which form its boundary; yet not refusing to the fancy all that lies beyond of scenery, consecrated by the history of past ages. From this intermediate point the view extended northwards, even to the hills of Albania, the ancient Epirus; and southwards was carried far along the shores of the Peloponnesus, level and fertile towards the sea, where they form the region of Elis, but rising behind into lofty groupes of mountains, yet more celebrated as a part of the ancient Arcadia.

‘Nothing could be more fortunate than the aspect under which we saw a scene, thus magnificent in itself, and interesting in the associations it afforded. The evening was remarkably clear and serene;

setene; a gentle wind from the south carried us slowly along the channel, bringing with it, from the plains of Zante, a fragrant odour, which was distinctly perceptible even three miles from the land. While entering the bay on which stands the city of Zante, the moon, now near its full, rose from behind the mountains of the Morea, and drew a softened outline of these beautiful shores. The name of Akroteria, given to a line of wooded cliffs which form the northern boundary of the bay, brought to mind many impressions of ancient time and language.'

Dr. Holland's peregrinations in Greece and the adjacent country may be arranged under the following heads:

I. Albania; Residence in Ioannina; Account of Ali Pacha, and of the Territory subject to him.

II. Thessaly; Residence at Larissa; Salonica.

III. Voyage from Salonica to Thermopylæ; Journey through Phocis and Bœotia to Athens; Journey from Attica to Corinth, Tripolizza, and Patras.

IV. Second Visit to Albania, and Journey through the northern part of that Province beyond Aulona, the antient *Ἀυλὼν*.

*Ionian Republic.*—The seven Ionian isles, placed by the late treaty exclusively under British protection, contain a population of about 200,000 persons. Two-thirds of them have been in our hands since 1810, and have already received considerable benefit from our interference; with the prospect of much more when we shall deem it proper to take greater liberties with the established usages. Dr. H. gives (p. 14. *et seq.*) a minute account of Zante and Cephalonia; and a few particulars of their southern associate, Cerigo, the antient Cythera. On his passage to Albania, he embraced an opportunity of landing in Ithaca.

'The Sirocco carried us rapidly forwards to the entrance of the great port of Ithaca. The night was now far advanced; but the character of the sky at this time, and the moon, which had newly risen, gave a fine effect of light and shade to the steep and naked limestone cliffs which girt the ancient kingdom of Ulysses. Whatever sarcasms be thrown upon the smallness and ruggedness of this celebrated isle, admiration must ever be given to the spectacle of its port; a deep gulph, which, from its eastern coast, very nearly traverses the whole breadth of the island, branching out into arms and bays, which are sheltered by lofty hills and promontories of rock. The town of Vathi, the capital of the modern Ithaca, stands at the upper extremity of one of these deep inlets, separated from all view of the sea, and deriving a singular aspect of seclusion from the mountains which seem on every side to surround it.'

'Ithaca is certainly a very interesting island; and it has been fortunate in the justice done to it by the learned and accurate

work of Sir W. Gell. Following such a work, I shall not enter into details either as to the scenery or antiquities of the isle; contenting myself with a brief sketch of the observations I made on its general character, during this and a subsequent visit in 1813.\*

'The extreme length of Ithaca from north to south is 17 miles; its greatest breadth does not exceed four; and at its north extremity, as well as in the centre of the island, where the great port traverses it, does not exceed half a mile. It may be regarded in fact, as a single narrow ridge of limestone rock, every-where rising into rugged eminences, of which the loftiest are the mountains of Stephano and Neritos.—It can scarcely be said that there are a hundred yards of continuous level ground in the island; and the general aspect must be confessed to be one of ruggedness and asperity, warranting the expression of Cicero, that Ulysses loved his country, "*non quia larga, sed quia sua.*" Nevertheless, the scenery is rendered striking by the bold and broken outline of mountains, promontories, and bays; and there are points in Ithaca where it is even pleasing, in the cultivated declivity of the ridges, and the opening out of the narrow vallies towards the sea, wooded with olives, orange, and almond trees, or covered with vineyards.'—

'I was interested, in walking through the streets of Vathi, by the spectacle of an Ithacan school; the preceptor, or *Didaskalos*, a venerable old man, with a long beard, who sat before his door, giving instruction to a circle of fifteen or twenty boys, each with a modern Greek version of the New Testament in his hand. It was amusing to hear sounds familiar to the ear from the Greek of Homer and Thucydides, shouted out by ragged striplings, many of them not more than seven or eight years of age. The old schoolmaster was pleased with the attention given to himself and his scholars, and endeavoured to rouse them to greater efforts of display.'

*Albania.*—After having visited Santa-Maura, the Leucadia of the antients, Dr. H. advanced up the gulf of Arta, and travelled by land to Ioannina, the capital of Ali Pacha, where he and his companion took up their abode for several weeks. He had thus an opportunity of observing the habits of the Albanians in their metropolis; and his visits to Ali enabled him to collect a stock of curious information respecting that chieftain. Ali's conversation when alone with Dr. H. had two main objects, viz. the means of prolonging life, and those of discovering, or, as he imagined, of manufacturing the precious metals: both of which, he thought, were within the province of an English physician; and he was so urgent with Dr. H. to prolong his stay that the latter judged it advisable

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\* The plates in Sir W. Gell's work afford, from their peculiar style, an admirable and perfect idea of the scenery of Ithaca.'

to pledge himself to revisit Ioannina on his homeward journey. We extract, from a long account of this capital, some passages descriptive of the manners of the inhabitants :

‘ The Greeks of Ioannina are celebrated among their countrymen for their literary habits, and unquestionably merit the repute they have obtained from this source. The literature of the place is intimately connected with, and depending upon its commercial character. The wealth acquired by many of the inhabitants gives them the means of adopting such pursuits themselves, or encouraging them in others. Their connections in Germany and Italy, and frequent residence in these countries, tend further to create habits of this kind, and at the same time furnish those materials for literary progress, which would be wanting in their own country. At the present time, nearly two-thirds of the modern Greek publications are translations of European works. Such translations are often both suggested and executed abroad, and the presses at Venice, Vienna, Leipsic, Moscow, and Paris, are all made subservient to the active industry of these people in forwarding the literature of their country.—

‘ There are two academies in the city ; at which, in sequel to each other, the greater part of the young Greeks at Ioannina are instructed. The Gymnasium, if such it may be called, of Athanasius Psalida, ranks as the first of these ; and has acquired some reputation from the character of the master himself, who is considered as one of the chiefs of the literature of modern Greece. It is true that there are others who have written more ; but Psalida has travelled much, is master of many languages, a good classical scholar, a sharp-sighted critic, a poet, and versed besides in various parts of the literature and science of European nations.—The funds of the academy which Psalida superintends are lodged in the bank of Moscow. He has a great number of public pupils, whom he instructs not only in the languages, but also in history, geography, and various branches of general philosophy. He has one or two assistants in his labours ; but it is the reputation of his own name which maintains the character of the school.

‘ The other academy of Ioannina is one of lower stamp, and devoted to a younger class of scholars. It is conducted at present by an elderly Greek, of the name of Valano, very respectable and industrious, but with less learning than Psalida.—

‘ The manner of living among the Greeks of Ioannina is on the whole very uniform, and rendered more so than it might otherwise be, by the political pressure under which they all bend. Yet it must be allowed that in this city there is much social intercourse of a pleasant kind, at least equal in its merits to any that I have found in Spain, Portugal, or Sicily ; and superior certainly to what will be met with elsewhere in Greece. The vivacity of the Greeks always gives character to their society ; and in Ioannina this is aided by the intelligence and acquirements they have derived from European intercourse. There will be found here, however, as in other parts of Greece, a great disparity in this



respect between the sexes.—The Grecian females of the higher class can scarcely be said to receive any education, except such as may casually be derived from their domestic associates of the other sex. They have none of the advantages which the men obtain from travel, but are secluded in great measure from admixture with the world, and seldom leave the galleries or apartments of their own houses, but when going to attend the services of the church, or to enjoy the luxury of the warm baths.'—‘ Their conversation, though generally lively, yet is deficient in variety; they read but little, and are affected with many superstitious feelings and practices. There is an air of indolence in the carriage of a Greek lady, which, though alluring, perhaps, to the stranger from attitude, dress, and a reference to oriental custom, would soon lose its charm in the fatigue of uniformity.— Yet it must be allowed, that there is in these women a feminine softness of manner, which wins admiration; as there is also in their habit and style of dress, something which gains upon the fancy, in its relation to the costume and magnificence of the East. Their address is usually graceful and engaging; and both in the course of medical practice and otherwise, I have met with Greek females of the higher class at Ioannina, whose propriety of demeanour might have fitted them for most European circles.’—

‘ In this country it is uncommon, except with the lower classes, to live upon the ground-floor, which is therefore generally occupied as out-buildings; the first floor being that always inhabited by the family. In the house of our host there were four or five which might be called living rooms, furnished with couches, carpets, and looking-glasses, which, with the decorations of the ceiling and walls, may be considered as almost the only appendages to a Grecian apartment.— Bed-chambers are not to be sought for in Greek or Turkish habitations. The sofas of their living apartments are the place of nightly repose with the higher classes; the floor with those of inferior rank. Upon the sofas are spread their cotton or woollen mattresses, cotton sheets, sometimes with worked muslin trimmings, and ornamented quilts. Neither men nor women take off more than a small part of their dress; and the lower classes seldom make any change whatever before throwing themselves down among the coarse woollen cloaks which form their nightly covering.’—

‘ The evening society at the house of our host was a source both of pleasure and information to us. The lively and social temper of the Greeks, and their eagerness for intercourse with European travellers, brought a great number to see us, and we formed acquaintance here with many of the principal merchants, and most of the literary characters of the city. At the head of the latter class was Athanasius Psalida, the master of the academy of Ioannina. Scarcely had I been five minutes with him before he began to complain of the ingratitude of European nations, in not repaying to the Greeks of this day the benefits they had derived from their ancestors. “ What should we have been but for the arts, the instruction, the example of the Grecian worthies? The modern descendants of these men had the same capacity for becoming

erring great, and opportunity and some slight aid alone were wanting to enable them to shew their qualities, and to take their place among nations."—This topic of the ingratitude of civilized Europe towards their country is a favourite one with every Greek, and they dwell upon it even to tediousness with every stranger who will afford his ear to them. Notwithstanding their political degradation, there is a high tone of national vanity among the Greeks; in part that of ancestry, partly derived from a sense of their own active talent and intellectual superiority to the Turks who surround them.'—

'The language spoken by the Greeks of Ioannina is considered as one of the best forms of the Romaic, and it perhaps in some degree merits this distinction. I may remark generally, without reference to the particular dialects of Athens, Constantinople, Zakonia, &c. that the relation of the Romaic to the Hellenic (as the ancient Greek is still called in this country) is much the same, in respect to degree of change, as that of Italian to Latin; that the principal presumed or certain differences are,—in the sound of particular consonants and diphthongs; in the adoption of the pronunciation by accent; in the loss of the dual number and middle voice; in the absence of the dative case, which is usually supplied by the accusative with a preposition; in the large use of the auxiliary verbs *έχω* and *είμι*; and in the formation of the infinitive by the particle *ειν*, prefixed to the persons of the present tense, and the first aorist of the subjunctive. These grammatical changes seem indeed important, and others might be specified in the use of the pronouns, adverbs, &c.; but still, when the change in pronunciation is surmounted, the stranger in Greece will find much facility in taking up the language from the general identity in most of the radicals. Still more easily will he peruse the Romaic writings, which, as is natural perhaps with such a people as the modern Greeks, have deserted in some measure the spoken language, and sought to approximate themselves more to the ancient Greek standard. This tendency appears to have considerably increased of late years; and many writers in prose of these times have assiduously endeavoured to form their style on the model of Thucydides, and to increase the power of the language as to compound words.'

We are sorry that we have not room for the insertion of a number of interesting particulars (p. 186. *et seq.*) regarding Ali Pasha. This veteran chief has habits of very close application, and a local knowledge of every remarkable spot in his dominions: but the course of public business experiences delay from his making a point of deciding himself on all differences between his subjects. The extent of Albania is compared by Dr. H. to that of Scotland, and the amount of population, all things considered, (p. 114.) may not be greatly different. Ali is a suspicious and cruel ruler: but, bad as he is, his reign will prove the source of eventual advantage, inas-

much as it has united the greater part of Albania and Thessaly into one state; and put an end to the robberies which formerly impeded communication in these fine provinces. His Greek and Turkish subjects are disaffected, but the Albanians feel as strong an attachment to him as ever the French army felt towards Bonaparte. In his solicitations with Dr. H. to take up his abode at Ioannina, he assured him that no pains should be spared to make his residence agreeable, and finally pressed him to remain at least for a year. The Doctor's professional views in England, and the character of Ali, afforded sufficient reasons for declining this proposal: but the refusal was qualified with a promise to visit the Pasha's son, Veli, at Larissa, as well as to return by way of Ioannina on quitting Greece. Veli Pasha was said to be labouring under an obstinate complaint; and the hope of giving him useful advice, co-operating with the desire of seeing the romantic scenery in the mountain ridge of Pindus, induced Dr. H. to direct his course towards Larissa. He departed accordingly in the beginning of November; and, after some very useful directions with regard to the manner of travelling in Greece, he proceeds to relate his journey across the mountains. He passed the town of Metzovo, singularly situated in the midst of ridges, about three thousand feet above the level of the sea. Near this elevated spot are the sources of four large rivers; the Arta, flowing southward to the gulf of that name; the Achelous (now the Aspro Potamo), which flows also southward; the Salympria (Peneus), which takes an eastward course; and the Viosa (Aoüs), which runs northward in the direction of Aulona. Another day's journey carried the travellers over the top of the Pindus range, some parts of which seem (the writer says) six or seven thousand feet above the sea. From a spot at which they stopped, they had a delightful prospect, to the east, of the plains of Thessaly, of Ossa, and Olympus, and traced the luxuriant vallies which mark the course of the Peneus before it enters the romantic defile of Tempe. They were not, however, able to discern the sea, either to the east or the west.

In journeying from Metzovo eastward, the eye is attracted by the extraordinary rocks of Meteora; a groupe of insulated cones rising almost as perpendicular as a wall, and crowned, on their tops, by Greek monasteries, erected four or five centuries ago, with the double view of security and meditation. On approaching the base of one of these extraordinary elevations, a shout from the Tartar guide was answered from the monastery, and a thick rope was let down from a pulley, having at its end a strong net, in which the two travellers placed

placed themselves, and were hoisted up a height of 156 feet in less than three minutes. 'This ascent, (says Dr. H.) was much more formidable than the descent into a mine, where the depth is not seen, and the sides of the shaft give a sort of seeming security.' On entering the aerial habitation, they had a very gratifying prospect of the surrounding scenery, but every thing in the building was indicative of poverty and ignorance. When they asked the monks in what age this and the neighbouring structures were erected, the only answer was *Πολλὰ παλαιὰ εἶναι*—"they are very antient;" an answer somewhat improved by a *Grammaticos* in the neighbourhood, who boldly declared that these buildings were coeval with the creation. — Leaving these romantic scenes, Dr. H. proceeded eastward, and in two days reached the residence of Veli Pasha:

'The extent and population of Larissa are very considerable; and the estimate I received of 4000 houses, and 20,000 inhabitants, is probably not beyond the truth. The internal appearance of the city is mean and irregular; the streets are ill-built, narrow, and dirty; and in the houses and inhabitants alike, there is a general indication of wretchedness. The Bazaars, which form as usual the central part of the town, are indifferently supplied with manufactured goods. In walking through the streets in the suburbs of the city, I was surprised by observing the large amount of negro population, which was much greater than I have remarked in any other Turkish town. — Of the population of Larissa, it is probable that three-fourths are entirely Turkish; the number of Greek and Jewish inhabitants conjointly not exceeding a thousand families.'

'In the towns chiefly inhabited by Turks, the most striking circumstance is the air of uniform indolence and unbroken monotony which pervades every part of the scene. As you walk along the street, few sounds of the human voice come upon the ear. Reclining in his gallery, or on cushions before his door, the Turk is seen to repose in a silence and grave stillness of demeanour, which might for the moment sanction even idleness with the name of dignity: his only movement that of raising or depressing his long pipe; his only conversation, if any there be, an occasional brief sentence, addressed in a low and deliberate tone to those who may be near him, and answered with the same formal apathy of manner. Or you may meet these people in their progress to the baths or the mosque, treading with a slow, stately, and measured step; scarcely deigning to notice the stranger as he passes them; and by demeanour alone drawing an involuntary homage of respect, which is little due to the intrinsic merits of the man. Elsewhere ignorance is generally noisy or feeble, — among the Turks it is disguised from outward observation by a gravity, or even propriety of manner, which are not the artifice of individuals, but the national habit of the people.

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' This universal aspect of indolence, however, is the circumstance which least offends the eye in a Turkish town. Its effects are more disagreeably seen in the appearances of neglect and decay which every-where present themselves; houses falling for want of repair; the habitations of the lower classes wretched and comfortless; filth accumulating in the streets without removal; and a general want of those circumstances which give order and propriety to social life. The stranger will be astonished in a thousand instances, by the strangeness of the contrast between the exterior of the Turks and of their habitations; and after following in the street a figure of dignified manner and splendid dress, will wonder to see him enter an abode where all is meanness and decay.'—

' The plains surrounding Larissa have the same character of fertility which distinguishes the other parts of Thessaly. Indian corn, wheat, and tobacco, are abundantly grown in this district, and large flocks of sheep feed in the country which stretches towards the mountains on the northern boundary of the plain. As is the case in the upper parts of Thessaly, the habitations are generally collected into towns or villages, a circumstance which certainly lessens the facility of cultivation, but which may possibly be required for security in the present state of the country. The capabilities are great throughout the whole of this fine province; and it would not be easy to fix a limit to the amount and variety of produce which might be raised from its surface. A fine alluvial soil, the deposit of ages, is spread over the greater portion of these plains. Tradition accords with external appearances, in giving a testimony that they once were covered with water, and it is impossible to look down upon Thessaly from any of its mountain-boundaries, without inclining strongly to this opinion.'—

' In their present state the plains of Thessaly form one of the most productive districts of the Grecian peninsula, and their annual produce in grain of different kinds, cotton, silk, wool, rice, and tobacco, allows a very large amount of regular export from the province.'—

' It is almost equally difficult as in Albania, to estimate the modern population of Thessaly, and thereby to obtain a comparison with the ancient condition of this district. Independently of the cities of Larissa and Trikala, the villages on the plain are numerous and well-peopled; and though it might perhaps be difficult now to count the five-and-fifty towns, which are assigned by Pliny to the ancient Thessaly, yet, reckoning these villages, the number would probably be very nearly obtained.'

*Tempe and Thessalonica.*—From Larissa, Dr. Holland and his fellow-traveller determined to go to Salonica, partly from a wish to survey a tract comparatively little visited, and partly from a predilection for the romantic scenery of the Olympic range and the vale of Tempe. On leaving Larissa, the prominent object is Ossa, a conical mountain not unlike

Arthur's Seat near Edinburgh, but much higher, being apparently almost four thousand feet above the sea. To the south, at a considerable distance, stands Mount Pelion; to the north, Olympus. Having passed nearly twenty miles through bold but luxuriant scenery, the travellers caught a glance of the opening of Tempe, and stopped for the night at Amphilochia, a picturesque town, placed on a ridge, or rather succession of ridges, on the acclivity of a mountain. The inhabitants are almost all Greeks, and are noted for their industrious habits. Next morning, descending from this height, Dr. H. rode to the banks of the Peneus, and soon entered the deep ravine improperly termed the vale of Tempe. Instead of the breadth which we are in the habit of assigning to regions that bear the name of *vale*, this romantic defile is frequently only two or three hundred feet wide, each side consisting of cliffs alternately projecting and receding. The bed of the river sometimes occupies the whole of the space beneath; the road being frequently carried along the ledges of the cliffs, and seeming, at times, to overhang the stream. Comparing Tempe to St. Vincent's rocks near Bristol, Dr. H. considers the Peneus as little wider than the Avon; the intervals between the cliffs being equally contracted, but the cliffs themselves being much more lofty and precipitous. The Peneus rolls onward a full and rapid stream, extremely limpid in summer, but in winter discoloured, and so little interrupted as to be navigable throughout the whole of the defile, a length of five miles. About the middle of the pass stand the ruins of some high walls, and the remains of an antient castle that was evidently intended to defend this important passage. Below these ruins, a stream flowing northerly from Ossa enters the Peneus where the surrounding cliffs form a vast semicircular basin, and are uniformly as perpendicular as walls. At the time of the Persian invasion, a body of ten thousand Greeks was stationed here to defend this entrance into Thessaly, but retired on understanding that Xerxes would be able to penetrate by another route over the mountains adjoining Olympus. The Thessalians had a current tradition that it was Neptune who opened the defile of Tempe to carry off their inland waters; and Herodotus expresses an opinion that the separation of the cliffs must have been the result of an earthquake.

From Tempe, the travellers continued to ride along the coast, having on their left-hand Olympus, the height of which Dr. H. computes at nearly six thousand feet. Passing the river Haliacmon and several insignificant towns, they reached, beyond the antient Methone, the frontier of Ali Pasha's dominion; and, learning that their farther progress by land would

would be impeded by the marshes at the mouth of the *Axius*, and other rivers, they went in a small bark to *Salonica*.

‘The approach to this city from the sea is very imposing. It is seen from a great distance, placed on the acclivity of a steep hill, which rises from the gulph at its north-east extremity; surrounded by lofty stone-walls, which ascend in a triangular form from the sea, and surmounted by a fortress with seven towers. The domes and minarets of numerous mosques rise from among the other buildings, environed, as usual, by cypresses, and giving a general air of splendour to the place. In approaching the city, we passed among the numerous vessels which afforded proof of its growing commerce, and at six in the evening came up to one of the principal quays, the avenues of which were still crowded with porters, boatmen, and sailors, and covered with goods of various description.’—‘We passed the night, surrounded by at least twenty people; and the following morning rose at an early hour to make room for the Turks, who came in great numbers to take their coffee in the apartment. While breakfasting ourselves in the midst of them, we dispatched *Sulema* with our letters to *Yusef Bey*, the governor of the city.—In *Salonica*, fortunately there was little need of such recommendation; the presence of an English consul, and of a considerable Frank population, afforded every comfort to the residence of the stranger in this city.—The Frank families, which have long resided in the Levant, gradually lose their several national characteristics, as they become more identified with the habits of the country in which they live; and, unless within the precincts of a factory or other establishment, the traveller might often in vain seek to find a relation between a national name and the features of the individuals who bear it.—A striking instance of this occurred to our notice in the family of *Mr. Abbott*, an English merchant of *Salonica*. A residence of more than half a century in various parts of the Turkish empire, has taken from *Mr. Abbott* every thing English but his name, and an imperfect knowledge of the language. He wears the dress of the country, speaks the Turkish almost as his native tongue; associates chiefly with the Turks, and might easily be mistaken by the stranger for one of this nation. Of his long residence abroad, forty-two years have been passed at *Salonica*; thirteen in the northern part of *Asia Minor*. He married a Greek lady of the latter country, and his son, the only person in the family who speaks English, is also married to a female of the same nation. We dined once or twice at *Mr. Abbott's* table during our stay at *Salonica*. The usages of his house differed very little from those of common Greek society; and the ladies of the family in particular were most scrupulous in their observation of the Greek fast, one period of which had just commenced with all its severities of denial.’—‘*Salonica* is exceeded in population only by *Constantinople*, and possibly by *Adrianople*, among the cities of European Turkey, and in the extent of its commerce is probably second to the capital alone. Its general situation and the

magnificence of its external appearance have already been noticed. The circumference of the city, as determined by the walls, probably exceeds five miles.—The interior of Salonica presents the same irregularity, and many of the same deformities which are common in Turkish towns. The rapid ascent of the hill diminishes this evil in the upper part of the town; and, on the whole, as respects cleanliness and internal comfort, Salonica may contrast favourably with most other places in Turkey of large size and population. It certainly gains greatly in the comparison, if activity of business be admitted as a criterion of superiority. Except in those quarters where the principal Turks reside, there is a general appearance of life and movement, which forms a striking contrast to the monotony of a Turkish town. The quays are covered with goods; numerous groupes of people are occupied about the ships or the warehouses, and the Bazars are well stocked, and perpetually crowded with buyers and sellers. They are, in fact, chiefly Greeks or Jews who are thus occupied, people ever ready to seize any opening which may be offered to commercial industry, and ever ingenious in meeting and frustrating the political oppressions under which they labour.—

The number of Greek families in Salonica is said to be about two thousand. The greater part of this population is engaged in commerce; and many of the Greek merchants resident here have acquired considerable property from this source.—They do not possess so much reputation in literature as their countrymen of Ioannina, owing perhaps to the difference which their situation produces in the nature of their commercial concerns. I have visited, however, the houses of some of the Salonica merchants, in which there were large collections of books, including as well the Romaic literature as that of other parts of Europe.—‘The Frank population of Salonica is confined to the lower quarter of the city, but has latterly been much extended in number by the increasing commerce of the place. The German and French residents are more numerous than the English; and the former in particular have made several large establishments here within the last two years, in reference to the transit trade with the interior of Germany.—The French residents consist chiefly of families who have been long settled in the Levant, either professionally or in commercial engagements.’

*Thermopylæ.*—Dr. Holland departed from Salonica by water, and landed, after a tedious and dangerous passage, near the modern town of Zeitun. Having fulfilled his promise of a second visit to Veli Pasha at Larissa, he began to travel southerly, and fixed his attention on Thermopylæ. He entered first on the narrow portion of the plain which lies to the south of the river Sperchius, or Hellada, and which was occupied, according to Herodotus, by the army of Xerxes, while the Greeks remained in possession of the pass. Here, as at Plataea, the nature of the ground suggests the propriety



propriety of making a very great deduction from the historian's statement of numbers. The approach to the pass was sufficiently marked both by the contracting intervals between the cliffs and the sea, and by the columns of vapour rising from the hot springs. The pass is about two miles from the bridge over the Hellada, and is now, from the deposit of alluvial soil, considerably wider than it was in the days of Leonidas. The springs issue from four or five different places at the base of the cliffs; forming an important land-mark for the discovery of the other positions in this celebrated spot; and enabling the traveller to ascertain the eminence of Anthela, where, in a temple dedicated to Ceres, the Amphictryons held their meetings before the time of their assembling at Delphi. The fragments of a wall still remain, extending from the cliffs to the sea, which was originally built by the Phocians to oppose the incursions of the Thessalians; was repaired by the Greeks, at the time of the Persian invasion; was renewed by Antiochus against the Romans; and was finally restored by Justinian. Its position was at the northern entrance of the strait, and at the point at which the passage is most contracted by the projection of the rock towards the sea. Livy states the breadth of the pass in this place at sixty paces: but at present it seems about twice as far from the rock to the more impassable part of the marsh that is formed, as already mentioned, by alluvial deposits. The cliffs overhanging the pass appear to be 4, 5, or 600 feet in height, and the pass itself is of great length, extending in the whole not less than five miles; which would afford an almost impregnable barrier, were it not in the power of invaders to discover a path across the mountains. This, however, took place, not only in the time of Xerxes, but subsequently with the Gauls, the Romans, and even with the Huns; — in fact, there is more than one practicable path.

*Phocis and Bœotia.* — In visiting Delphi, Dr. H. was much delighted with the splendour of the surrounding scenery. The Castalian fountain is sufficiently obvious: but the site of the Temple and the Pythian cave have hitherto eluded the search of travellers; although the latter might, the Doctor thinks, (p. 392.) be discovered were it sought in the right place. The Castalian cliffs may be considered as forming, on one side, the base of Parnassus: their highest points are from 6 to 800 feet above the level of Delphi; perhaps 2000 above the level of the sea. The site of Delphi is now that of Castri, a miserable village. — Turning from this classic region to the north-east, the author passed the spot, at the meeting of three roads, which is described by Sophocles as the scene of the murder of  
Laius

Laius by Œdipus; and, having reached Davlia, (the antient Daulis,) he began to perceive at a distance the plains of Bœotia. The progress of his journey led him to Cheronæa, the ruins of which are still extensive; and afterward to Livadia, a populous town on the acclivity of a steep hill. Here may still be seen the cave of Trophonius, the Hercynian fountain gushing in a full stream from below the cliffs, and the two smaller fountains known to the antients by the names of Memory and Oblivion.

The discovery of antiquities, and of the scenes of distinguished actions, is much facilitated by the accurate descriptions of Pausanias; and every where in Bœotia the vestiges of antient buildings are scattered over the country. The weather, at the season of Dr. H.'s journey, (December,) was cold and frosty: but he must have been a discontented traveller who would have complained when riding over a tract exhibiting on the one hand the lofty range of Parnassus, and on the other the beautiful chain of Helicon. The latter is indeed high and steep: but to the distant eye its grandeur is softened by slopes and intervening woods. The plains between these mountains preserve their former reputation of fertility, and the Cephissus is seen winding through them its tranquil stream. After he had left these plains, at a distance of about seventeen miles from Livadia, the author traversed the remarkable pass reputed to be that which Sophocles meant as the scene of the perilous questions of the Sphinx. He now discerned at a distance the ruins of Thebes covering the sides and summit of an eminence: but he was much disappointed, on coming up, to find this once-famed city reduced to a wretched town of five or six hundred houses and cottages. At present it is difficult, with all the aid of Pausanias, to make out the position of the seven gates, or of the principal temples: but much may be discovered when circumstances become such as to admit of extensive excavation. Inscriptions, however, are visible in various parts of the city; while the fountains of Dirce and Ismenus remain important marks to guide the scrutiny of the antiquary. Amid all the poverty of the inhabitants, the beauty of the females is still conspicuous, their features having presented to Dr. Holland something like a practical illustration of the *beau idéal*. Another, and a less pleasant, characteristic of Bœotia, consists in the fogs which continue to hang over the lower part of its plains, some of which are still covered with marshes.

Proceeding in the direction of Attica, Dr. H. passed Thespia, where he still found ruins, and Plataea, where the outline of the walls is throughout distinct. They are of the antient

ancient Greek structure, having still in many places a height of twenty or twenty-five feet above the ground; and their circumference is somewhat more than a mile and a half. Dr. Holland admired the situation of Platea, but agreed with Mr. Hobhouse as to the extraordinary exaggeration in the numbers reported by Herodotus to have combated on this narrow plain.

' At five in the morning we quitted Platea, and by the aid of torches carried before us, ascended over rugged paths towards the summit of Cithæron. Darkness was still spread over the plains of Bœotia; but looking back upon them, we saw moving lights here and there, and found that these came from the husbandmen who had already begun the labours of the plough. Crossing the snowy summit of Cithæron, under the dawning of a magnificent day, (the thermometer here was at 28°,) we entered Attica, not far from the antient town of Eleuthera, the ruined walls of which encircle a rugged hill to the left of the road. Hence for two or three hours we travelled through a hilly irregular country, the mountains composed of a coarse marble, covered with forests of pine, but very bare of other vegetation. Leaving the defiles and narrow vallies of these hills, we came upon the great Thriasian plain, at the head of the Eleusinian Gulph; the waters of which bay, intercepted by the isle of Salamis, and the line of the Attican coast, were spread before us like a great lake, the forms of the mountains and isles reflected on their placid surface. In the arid and unfruitful soil of this plain, we already recognized one feature of the ancient Attica.

' Crossing this long level, and leaving Eleusis to the right hand, we entered upon the Via Sacra, the road by which the great processions passed from Athens to the temple of Ceres at Eleusis. It conducted us first under the cliffs upon the shore; then by a rapid ascent between the hills Ægaleon and Corydalus, names long since familiar to the ear. We passed the picturesque monastery of Daphne, conjectured as the site of the temple of Apollo, which once stood in this pass; half a mile beyond, caught a view of the upper part of the plain of Athens; and a few minutes afterwards, in coming to a break in the hills, heard our Tartar shout with a loud voice, "*Athena, Athena!*" The intimation was needless. We already had the sacred city before our eyes; noble in its situation, noble in its ruins, and in the recollection it gives of antient times and antient men. It was now the latter part of the day, and the setting sun (the first setting sun of 1813) threw a gleam of light on the western front of the Acropolis, and on the splendid groupe of buildings which covers its summit. Already the Parthenon was discernible pre-eminent over the rest; the city of Athens was seen spread over a great extent below; the chain of Hymettus beyond; more immediately beneath us the great plain and olive-groves of Athens, conducting the eye in one direction to the lofty summits of Pentelicus, on the other to the Piræus, to Salamis,

Salamis, Ægina, and the other isles of the gulph, and to the mountains of the Peloponnesus in the remote distance. —

'We descended from the pass of the Sacred Way into the plain, traversed the venerable wood of Olives which occupies its central part; crossed the small and divided stream of Cephissus, and at five o'clock entered the city by the gate, near to the temple of Theseus. The English, more than any other people, have cultivated the ancient, through the modern Athens, and one of the first persons we saw in approaching the place was an Englishman, looking over an excavation which had been made for the purposes of research.'

*Peloponnesus.* — Dr. H. was highly gratified with Athens, but declines to enter into any description of a city which has already occupied the pen of so many writers. He staid there several weeks, and made various excursions, particularly to Marathon; after which he proceeded on his return by Eleusis, Megara, and Corinth. In his farther progress, he admired greatly the situation of Mycenæ, and the prospect over the fertile plains of Argos. At Tripolizza he passed a short time, and, the weather being now uncommonly cold, he had an uncomfortable journey of three days to Patras. The accommodation throughout was wretched, but his chief mortification arose from the disadvantages under which he saw this celebrated region, covered as it was with snow.

'The exit from the lofty region, which forms all the interior of the Peloponnesus, affords one of the finest spectacles that can be conceived, in the suddenness with which a vast landscape is opened out in front. The fertile plains of Patras are immediately beneath, stretching to the shores of the gulph, which gradually expands from the Rhium and Anti-rhium, between the receding coasts of the Peloponnesus and Ætolia. The splendid promontories of Calydon and Taphiasus; the mouths of the Evenus and Achilous; the modern castle and city of Lepanto, representing the ancient Naupactus; the expansion of the gulph of Corinth underneath the mountains of Locris Ozolia, with many other objects of classical note, are seen in front of the landscape: the mountains of Acarnania, of Cephalonia, and Ithaca appear in the more remote distance. Till descending to the plains of Patras, I had no sufficient idea of the great elevation on which we had been travelling for some days past. Our descent, which was very steep, occupied more than an hour, and on a moderate estimate could not have been less than 1500 feet, though we approached the edge of the declivity along a valley.' —

'The journey through the Peloponnesus, just related, was unfortunate beyond calculation in all the circumstances attending it. To a certain extent I afterwards retrieved this misfortune by an excursion I made in the month of May over the plains of the ancient Elis, and along the beautiful banks of the Alpheus, to the site of the celebrated Olympia. At this time the country was

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glowing

glowing with beauty; and though the severity of the winter still shewed itself in the snows covering the mountain-summits, all beneath was true Arcadian scenery, and might have been taken in its population, as well as natural features, to fill up the pictures which the fancy draws of this region.

Having duly fulfilled his promise of a second visit to Ali Pasha, and passed some time with his princely invalid, the author directed his course to the northern part of Albania. When travelling in this quarter, and drawing to the close of his journey, he had the misfortune to lose a portmanteau, containing several of his papers and drawings for maps. The loss affected chiefly the journal of his second journey in Albania, and was much to be regretted as depriving us of an account of a part that has been comparatively little visited. Fortunately, however, his other papers were in safety, and enough appears in the present volume to prove him to be a faithful and minute journalist. One of his principal objects was to convey a clear idea of the scenery of the country, and of the remains of antiquities scattered over its surface: in pursuance of which plan, he has given us a dozen of elegant engravings, which, if they be not too flattering in the execution, will encourage the admirer of classic ground to an indignant contradiction of the attempts of those who would seek to reduce our estimate of this far-famed region. Another object was to ascertain the population of the different towns; a point in which he met with no little difficulty, from the general ignorance and indifference of the magistrates. — He complains (p. 198.) of the embarrassment attendant on the practice of his profession, when a physician is unacquainted with the language of the country, and obliged to receive his communications through an interpreter: but the medical is, in other respects, a very convenient character for securing the protection of such semi-barbarous governors as those of Albania and Greece. The assumption of it, as our readers well know, was of great use to Bruce in his adventurous peregrinations through Abyssinia.

Dr. H. describes (p. 307.) the scene of the battle of Pydna between the Roman consul Paulus Æmylius and Perseus of Macedon. He also delineates, and at greater length, (p. 364.) the positions occupied by Pompey and Cæsar, previously to the decisive day of Pharsalia; when the confidence of the former induced his troops to quit their 'vantage ground, and meet their less numerous but better disciplined antagonists in the plain. To the east of Pharsalia, are the eminences of Cynocéphale, the scene of a memorable battle between the Romans under Flaminius and the Macedonians under Philip.

The great objection to Dr. Holland's observations arises from the haste with which he found it necessary to proceed; and which obliged him to traverse, in the depth of winter, Phocis, Bœotia, Attica, and Arcadia, so that he saw only Albania and a part of Macedon in a favourable season. He was thus compelled to make but a short visit to spots on which he would have delighted to linger; and he was exposed, on more occasions than one, to considerable hazard. Of this nature was his passage from Salonica to the south of Thessaly in the beginning of December, and his nocturnal ride over Mount Othrys, on returning from his second visit to Larissa.

In point of style, Dr. H. trespasses not a little on the score of diffuseness, and sometimes on that of correctness\*. Not contented with exhibiting an idea in its principal point of view, he introduces its minor relations with a pains-taking minuteness which materially injures the effect: so that many parts of his book would have read more fluently, and have left a stronger impression, had he omitted those auxiliary passages. On the whole, however, he must be deemed a candid, amusing, and enlightened traveller.

The volume is concluded by two specimens of Romance, a list of plants, and a general (but insufficient) index.

ART. II. *Mémoires sur la Guerre des Français, &c.*; i. e. *Memoirs relative to the French War in Spain.* By M. de Rocca, Officer of Hussars, and Knight of the Order of the Legion of Honour. 8vo. pp. 426. 9s. 6d. Boards. London, Murray. 1815.

THOUGH the late war in Spain was never popular in France, it was too long and too important not to excite a considerable share of public attention; or to fail to exercise, as in this country, the pens of several military men. A work on this subject by Bory de St. Vincent was announced at Paris about two years ago, and was expected to appear with all the advantage of the official information of Marshal Soult; but subsequent occurrences have delayed this important publication, and oblige us to be satisfied, for the present at least, with performances of minor interest. One of the best of these is the volume now before us, the production of a young officer of good education and of considerable impartiality. His nar-

\* For example, p. 42., we find northerly for southerly;—p. 160., 'the family would have eat,' for *eaten*;—elsewhere, 'we had rode,' for *ridden*, &c. &c.

rative relates chiefly to the earlier part of the war, viz. the years 1808, 1809, and 1810; and it contains likewise a brief notice of Masséna's unsuccessful invasion of Portugal, but without any attempt at recording the operations subsequent to the spring of 1811. Several passages bear, as in the case of M. Labaume, the marks of amplification, received apparently from the hands of a Parisian editor: but the bulk of the volume is evidently the record of an eye-witness, and deserves confidence by its clearness and accuracy. It may be considered, therefore, as an useful accompaniment, in the study of the Spanish war, to the more comprehensive views exhibited by the dispatches of commanders in chief; which, while they display the general outline of operations, necessarily omit details of the proceedings of detachments, or of the conduct of the inhabitants in remote situations.

The narrative opens with a description of the very different kind of warfare sustained by the French in Germany and in Spain. In Austria and Prussia, the people have been accustomed for ages to obey in all things the executive power, and had no idea of war but through the medium of a regular force:—the governments were strong in revenue and in the number of soldiers, but weak in the means of exciting desultory resistance after their armies were driven from the field:—while the clergy, at least in the Protestant part of Germany, laid claim to no influence with their flocks beyond that of guiding them in the path of moral and religious duty. In Spain, the case was completely reversed; the nation being weak in the means of regular warfare, and almost invincible in those of desultory annoyance:—the country is thinly peopled and badly cultivated: but the great extent of mountainous tracts affords a refuge to smugglers in time of peace, and to predatory parties in the operations of war:—while the influence of the clergy was all-powerful, and the assassination of the invaders was deemed a merit by all classes of the people.

M. de Rocca marched from Germany into Spain with the numerous bodies of troops that were withdrawn by Bonaparte after his well-known interview with the Emperor Alexander at Erfurth; and which were of all nations, French, Italians, Poles, Germans, Swiss, and Dutch. They had scarcely passed the Bidassoa when they perceived a remarkable change in the people and in the aspect of the towns; the streets being narrow and crooked, and the gaiety of the French replaced by all the gravity and reserve of the Spaniards. It was not until they joined their comrades on the Ebro, that the French were made acquainted with the  
defeats

defeats of Dupont in Andalusia and of Junot in Portugal: all bad news had been industriously concealed from them; and they had been merely told that they were marching to give the *coup de grace* to the power of England. A few weeks sufficed to scatter the Spanish armies under Blake and Castanos; and the French advanced afterward with little opposition, but found the towns invariably deserted by the inhabitants. Burgos was a solitude; and, in entering most of the other places, no noise was to be heard but that of the town-clocks. The consequence of this abandonment, and of the want of magazines, was the delivery of most of these places to pillage, under the idea that the ingenuity of the soldier might discover those supplies which could not be regularly distributed to them. M. de Rocca thus describes the advance of the French into Spain:

‘ The forced marches of our troops were often continued during a part of the night; and, on passing by the squadrons, we heard Italians, Germans, and French singing their national airs to beguile their fatigue, and recall in a distant and hostile land the remembrance of their native country. The army often halted late in the evening in the neighbourhood of deserted towns or villages, and we found ourselves on our arrival destitute of every necessary: but the soldiers were presently seen dispersing in all directions to forage, and, in less than an hour, conveyed to their bivouacs every thing that had been left in the neighbouring houses. Around the great fires lighted up at distances from each other, was seen all the apparatus of a military kitchen. On one side, were constructed temporary barracks of planks covered with leaves as a substitute for straw: on another, tents were erected, by stretching on four stakes the pieces of coarse cloth which had been found in the deserted houses. On the ground were scattered the skins of sheep which had just been slaughtered; also pitchers, flasks of wine, broken guitars, monks’ gowns, and garments of every form and every colour: in one part, horsemen were seen sleeping beside their horses; at a distance, the foot-soldiers, some of them in the dress of women, formed grotesque dances, among heaps of arms, to the sound of discordant music.

‘ On the departure of the army, the peasants descended from the neighbouring heights, and came forth in every direction from their hiding-places, as if they had sprung from the earth. Our soldiers could not straggle from the roads, nor remain behind the columns, without being exposed to assassination; and we could by no means venture, as in Germany, to form travelling hospitals wherever we went, or to send our sick separately to the medical dépôt. The foot-soldiers who were unable to walk followed their respective divisions riding on asses; holding their musket in their left hand, and in the right their bayonet, which they used as a spur.



Our regiment of hussars had passed the 2d, 3d, and 4th of December in the environs of Alcalá, about eight miles from Madrid; and on the 5th we received an order to repair at an early hour to the Imperial quarters, to be reviewed. A few moments after our arrival in a plain near the Castle of Chamartin, we saw Napoleon come forth all at once. He was accompanied by Berthier and five or six aides-de-camp, who could scarcely keep up with him on account of the swiftness of his horse. All the trumpets sounded, and the Emperor stopped a hundred paces in front of the centre of our regiment, asking the Colonel for a list of the officers, subalterns, and soldiers, who had of late behaved so as to deserve military distinctions. The Colonel of the regiment called them immediately by their names; Napoleon spoke with a familiar air to some of the private soldiers, who were presented to him: but, addressing himself afterward to the General who commanded the brigade of which we formed a part, he put to him rapidly two or three short questions: which the General having begun to answer in a diffuse style, the Emperor turned his horse without waiting the end of his discourse, and his departure was as instantaneous as his arrival.

The entrance into Madrid is thus depicted:

After the review, we advanced towards the Spanish capital. A gloomy silence had succeeded to the tumultuous and noisy agitation which had prevailed within and without the walls of this city the evening before. The streets by which we entered were deserted, and none of the numerous shops of the provision-dealers in the squares were opened. The water-carriers were the only inhabitants who had not discontinued their usual functions. We saw them traversing the streets, crying with a nasal and drawling accent, which they bring with them from the mountains of Gallicia, *Quien quiere agua?* (Who wants water?) No body appearing to buy, the carrier repeated from time to time in a grave tone, *Dios que le da* (It is God who gives it). On advancing to the central part of Madrid, we saw a few groupes of Spaniards wrapped in their large cloaks, standing at the corners of the squares where they had been accustomed to meet in great numbers. They beheld us with a mournful and dejected look; and so great was their national pride, that they could not easily persuade themselves that soldiers who were not Spaniards could have beaten Spaniards. —

Our regiment spent nearly a month in the capital. I lodged in the house of an old man of high family, who lived alone with his daughter. He went to mass regularly twice every day, and once to the square Del Sol to inquire the news; on his return, he sat down in a parlour, where he passed the rest of his time literally in doing nothing: but sometimes he lighted his cigarre, and sought to dissipate his tedium and his thoughts by smoking. He seldom spoke, and I never saw him laugh; once in every half hour, he called out with a dejected sigh, *Ay Jesus*; his daughter replied in the same words, and both returned to their usual silence. A priest, the spiritual guide of the family, visited my hosts daily with

with the same assiduity with which physicians attend their patients in other countries.

Though in appearance profound tranquillity prevailed in Madrid, our regiment was always in readiness to mount: our horses were kept constantly saddled as if we had been on an out-post in the presence of an enemy; and, in the midst of the songs of victory with which our bulletins resounded, we could never divest ourselves of a confused feeling of uncertainty with regard to the advantages which we had actually obtained. We might have almost said that we had conquered on volcanic ground. None of the Spaniards presented themselves to Napoleon, to lay tribute at his feet, with those obsequious eulogiums to which other nations had accustomed him. Twelve hundred heads of families, selected in the city of Madrid, being called to take an oath of allegiance to King Joseph, obeyed the summons: but those very priests before whom they swore on the Gospel had, it was said, long before discharged them from any oaths of submission which they might make to the invaders. The reduction of the religious orders, and the abolition of the Inquisition, which the French authorities had proclaimed, far from making us be considered as deliverers, served but to increase the violent hatred which the clergy and their numerous devotees bore to us; and the monks of every order, who had been driven from their convents and dispersed over the country, went about in all directions preaching war and death to Frenchmen.

The utility of this work consists not in general views, which the author from his youth and subordinate station had not the means of studying, but in a clear and accurate report of the scenes which passed under his eye; and though several of these (pp. 56. 118. 275.) are too minute, and should have been abridged, the result of the whole is a very distinct impression of the mode of warfare practised in Spain. We read frequently of De Rocca's detachment of cavalry wandering from its path for want of a guide; at other times, of its beholding in the road the afflicting spectacle of the dead bodies of its countrymen who had been assassinated by the peasantry; and, on some occasions, (p. 260.) of its incurring the most imminent danger by venturing too far into a mountainous tract.

The Spaniards of the plains of Castille were already recovering from the momentary consternation into which they had been thrown by our sudden invasion; and the inhabitants of the places which we occupied had retired into the mountains and the woods, with their wives and children. There they watched all our steps, and formed ambuscades near the great roads to intercept our couriers, or to assail unexpectedly any of our detachments to which they judged themselves superior. We daily received some disastrous accounts of the small bodies that were left behind the army to keep up our communications; and in every place where we had stationed, as in Germany, posts for correspondence

in such small parties as 10 or 15 men, these parties were massacred. — When riding one day a few leagues beyond Aranjuez, I saw at a distance two Spanish peasants who had bound a French soldier, and were dragging him among the bushes to be murdered. I rode up to them as fast as my horse could gallop, and was fortunate enough to arrive in time to deliver the unhappy prisoner, a foot-soldier, who had come out of the hospital of Aranjuez the day before; and who, overpowered with fatigue, sat down to rest himself while his companions continued their march. I conducted him to his detachment, which had halted not far off, and resumed my route.

At some distance from Cordova, was a band of robbers well known for a long time back. These depredators did not give over their custom of stripping the Spanish passengers, but they made war also on the French, attacking our detachments even when they had no hope of plunder.

The great fault of the Spanish Generals consisted in attempting pitched battles at the head of troops unaccustomed to move from line into column, or from column into line: while their absurd confidence, and their fear lest their opponents should escape them, made them spread their men out in long lines, which were easily penetrated by the French masses. Such was the case at Tudela (23d Nov. 1808), at Medellin (28th March 1809); and at Ocana (10th Nov. of the same year). On all these occasions, the Spaniards had the folly to encounter the French on level ground; that is, in positions highly favourable to charges of cavalry and the movement of compact bodies of infantry. Their own troops, though individually brave, were so little accustomed to stand fire in a body, that an inferior force would sometimes (p. 141.) make a regiment of their cavalry ride over their own comrades. Their loss was therefore always great: yet, as far as it consisted in prisoners and fugitives, it was speedily repaired; the former finding means to escape from the French escort in some part of their long marches, and the latter easily succeeding in rejoining their comrades through the exertions of the inhabitants, particularly the ecclesiastics. — The Spanish Junta retired first to Merida, and afterward to Seville, but it sent orders to the alcaldes and clergy, even in the places which were occupied by the French, to invite the Spanish militia-soldiers to rejoin the corps to which they belonged. These patriotic warriors marched by night, taking bye-roads to avoid a meeting with the French troops, and in this way the Spanish armies recovered from their dispersion with surprising facility.

At last, however, repeated defeats, and the arrival of reinforcements from France in 1809 and 1810, had put the invaders

vaders in possession of most of the principal towns, and confined the war to desultory operations. In these movements the Spaniards were eminently successful, particularly when a large proportion of the French force happened to be occupied by the British in Portugal. M. de Rocca relates (p. 209.) that an attack and a long pursuit of the famous partizan Mina, through the mountains of Navarre, did not cause the Spaniards the loss of thirty men; and Porlier, who has since been so unfortunate, escaped in like manner from all pursuit, and renewed his attacks in one province as soon as he was driven from another.

‘ *The Guerrillas*. — The national hatred which generally prevailed towards the French had introduced a sort of unity into the desultory efforts of the people, and we saw a regular warfare succeeded by a system of war in detail; a kind of organized disorder which perfectly suited the unbending temper of the Spanish nation, and the distressing circumstances in which it was placed. The portions of Spain occupied by the French were covered by degrees with partizans, and with detachments composed partly of regular soldiers who had been dispersed, partly of the inhabitants of the plains and mountains. Priests, labourers, students, and even shepherds, had become active and enterprising leaders. When we removed from one province to another, the enemy's partizans immediately reorganized in the name of Ferdinand VII. the country which we had left, as if we had been never to return, and they punished severely such of the inhabitants as had shewn any zeal for the French. The consequence was that the terror of our arms gave us no influence beyond our immediate neighbourhood; and the garrisons which we had left on the military roads, to overawe the country, were incessantly attacked. They had been obliged to form little citadels for their protection, by repairing old ruined castles placed on heights; some of which were the remains of forts that the Romans or the Moors had built for a similar purpose many centuries before. In the plains, our detachments for keeping up the army-correspondence found it necessary to fortify one or two houses at the entrance of the villages, that they might be tranquil during night, or might shut themselves up when attacked. Even the sentinels could not always venture to remain on the outside of the fortified inclosure, lest they should be carried off; and on such occasions they placed themselves on a turret, or on a scaffold constructed of planks over the roof, from which they could observe what passed at a distance in the country. Our soldiers, thus cooped up in their little citadels, frequently heard the joyful sounds of the guitars of their enemies, who had passed the night in the neighbouring villages, where they were always well received and entertained by the inhabitants.

‘ Our army could not obtain their provisions without strong escorts, which were perpetually harassed, and often taken. In the plains, the danger was less imminent, but our detachments were

were obliged to open their way by force of arms as soon as they entered the mountains; and the daily losses which we sustained in procuring provisions, and keeping up our communications, were in some parts of Spain fully equal to those which we should have experienced in a series of pitched battles. The Spaniards did not allow themselves to be discouraged by the long duration of the war; and the misfortunes to which other nations submit in patience, considering them as the inevitable consequences of war, afforded these people fresh subjects of hatred and rancour. Sometimes they entertained the French soldiers at their arrival in a town, and endeavoured to intoxicate them, in order to plunge them into a security much more dangerous than the chances of battle. They then called in their partizans, and pointed out to them during night the houses in which our soldiers were imprudently dispersed.'

Unwilling for a time to bear testimony to the superiority of the English troops, the French were in the habit of ascribing their defeats in Spain to the absence of Napoleon, and to the unmilitary character of Joseph. A crown surrounded with enemies ought, they would often say, to have been given to Murat, or some experienced commander, whose authority would have been productive of union, and would have directed the collective mass of force to those quarters in which its application would have been most effectual. In that case, they asserted, the English would have been driven from Portugal, and Cadiz would have fallen into the hands of the French. The result, however, would have been eventually the same; for what could have prevented our countrymen from landing a fresh army on a new point, or the Cortes from issuing their mandates from Gibraltar or Ceuta? M. de Rocca does not appear to have participated in this blind confidence, but always felt that the antipathy of the people, the difficulty of occupying the mountainous tracts, and the activity of the British, favoured as it was by the peninsular shape of Spain, opposed almost insurmountable obstacles to the accomplishment of Bonaparte's projects. It must at the same time be admitted that the French would have made a better figure, on several occasions, had their sovereign in Spain been possessed of military talents, or even of discrimination in the choice of his advisers.

'King Joseph was in the habit of issuing orders as commander-in-chief. His character was naturally good, but he had contracted a degree of apathy on the throne of Naples; and, surrounded by flatterers, and a few Spaniards who deceived him, he allowed himself to be buoyed up with the most foolish expectations. Instead of following the army, he remained in his capital, sunk in effeminacy, and regretting the delights of Italy, as if he could sleep

sleep and reign at Madrid as he had done at Naples: he filled the columns of his Journals with decrees which were never executed, and scarcely ever read: he made a number of promotions in armies which as yet had no existence; and he gave away in expectancy the places of governor, administrator, and judge in the most distant provinces of his kingdom in both hemispheres, while he himself could not venture to sleep in his country-house, distant only a few miles from Madrid. The Spaniards had taken it into their heads to spread a report that he was fond of drinking, and that he was one-eyed, which made a strong impression on the imagination of the country-people; and, though nothing could be more false, it was in vain for him to endeavour to destroy the impression by often shewing himself in public, and always looking in the face of those who passed him; the people continued to believe that he laboured under a defect in his eyes. After we had gained an action, he was accustomed to go to the Retiro, and to make the prisoners whom the army sent to him take the oaths, telling them that they had been deceived by perfidious men, and that he aimed at nothing but their good and the happiness of their country. The prisoners, who thought they were going to be shot, took at once the oaths required of them, but they deserted and returned to their own parties as soon as they were armed and equipped. The French Marshals and Generals obeyed him with reluctance, and even frequently sought occasions to contradict and displease him, in order that they might be sent back to Germany. They wished, at whatever price, to abandon an indecisive warfare which was unpopular even in the army, and which made them lose the opportunity of distinguishing themselves and obtaining promotion by fighting under the eye of the Emperor.'

It will be recollected that the principal occasion on which Joseph appeared in the field against the British was at Talavera. Lord Wellington, having repulsed Soult from the north of Portugal, marched southward, obliged Victor to retreat, and in the month of July (1809) attempted a combined operation with the Spaniards on Madrid. The British force exceeded 20,000, the Spanish was above 30,000, and the numbers assembled by the French to attack them at Talavera amounted (p. 164.) to 47,000. Lord Wellington was too distrustful of the tactics of his allies to attempt offensive operations against so well disciplined an army, but saw no imprudence in trying the chance of a defensive action. Having prevailed on Cuesta to place his troops on very strong ground near the town of Talavera, he occupied with the British a less inaccessible but yet advantageous position to the left. Against the army thus posted, the French advanced in the afternoon of the 27th of July; and, having driven in our vanguard, they ventured to attack, with a small division, an eminence on our extreme left. This eminence, says M. de R., was

R., was the key of the position, and would have been assailed by an able General from the beginning with the bulk of his force: but Jourdan sent only a rifle-corps and a battalion against it, which were soon driven back by the British. A second attack made in the evening by three regiments was at first successful, but the troops were soon repulsed by a fresh body of British, who now lost no time in strengthening the eminence with artillery. Next morning, the French veterans, accustomed under Bonaparte to conquer, waited impatiently for the signal to advance. Having received it, they penetrated, notwithstanding a great loss, to the top of the rising ground, and were marching up to seize our cannon, as they had been accustomed to do in their attacks on the Germans, when our troops rushed forwards to meet them, and drove them down with great loss. Surprized at these repeated checks, the French Generals determined to suspend any attempt against the Spaniards, and to bring the mass of their force against the British, in the hope of at last carrying our position by combined attacks in front and flank. The ground on our flank admitting of cavalry-movements, Lord Wellington stationed there two brigades of our dragoons, and supported them in the rear by a division of the Spanish.

‘ Joseph, having at last gone to reconnoitre in person the enemy’s position, gave orders, at four in the afternoon, for a general attack on the English army. A regiment of dragoons being left in the direction of Talavera to watch the Spaniards, General Sebastiani’s corps marched against the right wing of the English; while the three divisions of infantry, commanded by Marshal Victor, followed by masses of cavalry, advanced by their left through the valley to attack the height: King Joseph and Marshal Jourdan taking their stations with the reserve, behind the 4th corps. The firing of cannon and musketry very soon commenced. The English General, placed on a height which commanded the whole field of battle, was ready to go wherever danger required his presence. He discerned at a glance the different corps of his army, and distinguished the smallest movements of the French beneath him: he saw them draw up in order of battle, and form their columns of attack; he judged of their designs by their dispositions; and he had thus time to make preparations to counteract them. The position occupied by the English army was strong, being difficult of access both in front and in flank: while the French had a ravine to pass before they could reach their enemy; and they advanced on intersected uneven ground, which often forced them to break their line.

‘ Lapisse’s division first crossed the ravine, attacked the intrenched height, and scaled it, although volleys of grape-shot mowed down its ranks at every step: but it was repulsed after having lost its General, and a great number of officers and soldiers.

diers. By its retreat, the right of the 4th corps, being left exposed, was taken in flank by the English artillery, and forced for a moment to fall back. The left of this corps, commanded by General Sebastiani, had marched forwards under a very heavy fire of artillery to the foot of the redoubt, on the right of the English and on the centre of the allied army; and, having advanced too far and too soon, it was outflanked and repulsed by a corps of the English right, joined to the left of the Spaniards. This wing, however, was reinforced, and soon renewed the combat. In the centre, Marshal Victor rallied Lapisse's division at the foot of the eminence: but, the idea of carrying it in front being given up, the subsequent attempts of the French were directed to turn it by the left or the right. Villatte's division advanced into the valley; and that of Ruffin, on the right of the former, followed the direction of the bottom of the great chain of the mountains of Castille: while the cavalry stationed in the second line prepared to deploy in the plain behind the enemy, whenever the infantry should make an opening. Our columns, however, were scarcely in motion when they received a sudden charge from two regiments of English cavalry. These regiments, engaged in the valley, passed between the divisions of Villatte and Ruffin, under the fire of several battalions of infantry, and advanced with wonderful impetuosity against the 10th and 27th French regiments of horse-chasseurs. The former regiment, unable to meet this charge, opened its ranks, and, soon rallying, fell on the 23d light dragoons, which was at the head of the English cavalry, and which was almost totally cut off or made prisoners. After this, a division of the British Guards placed in the first line, on the left and centre of their army, having been charged, vigorously repulsed the French: but one of its brigades, having advanced too far, was in its turn taken in flank by the fire of our artillery and infantry, sustained considerable loss, and retired with much difficulty behind the second line. Night soon came on, and the fighting ceased without either of the parties having obtained advantages of sufficient importance to give it a right to claim a victory.

The corps of Victor and Sebastiani fell back successively on the reserve during the night, leaving a body of cavalry on the ground on which the battle had been fought, to carry off the wounded. The English, who expected to be attacked again on the next day, were surprized in the morning to find that we had retired to our first position on the Alberche, abandoning 20 pieces of cannon. The French had in all nearly 10,000 men put *hors de combat*; the English and Spaniards, 6616, according to their own official returns.

Many of the scenes mentioned in this work are shocking to humanity: but we have the gratification of hearing sometimes of a priest saving the life of a French straggler, and at other times of French guards (p. 148.) declining to obey the harsh order of firing on those Spaniards who attempted to



to escape. It was not uncommon, says M. de Rocca, for the soldiers in a French escort to walk before their prisoners on arriving at a village where the latter pretended to have their families, and by these means to connive at their escape. 'We were at last,' he adds, 'obliged to form our escorts from among our German auxiliaries, whose national inflexibility afforded a pledge that they would act up to their orders, whatever might be the sympathetic appeals of the prisoners under their charge.'

M. de Rocca had hitherto been particularly fortunate in his campaigning, and was even believed by some of his fellow-soldiers to be beyond the reach of military casualties: but they were effectually undeceived on an excursion on the 1st of May 1816, when his detachment was intercepted by a Spanish ambuscade, and he himself almost mortally wounded. Having lost the use of a leg, he was invalided, and directed to make the best of his way to Madrid, for the purpose of being sent back to France.

'On coming out of Andalusia, (he says) I travelled through La Mancha. I was obliged to stay several days at each station, waiting the return of the escorts which conducted supplies of ammunition to the siege of Cadiz. The Commandants of our corresponding stations (*postes de correspondance*) could give no escorts except for the indispensable service of the army, because they often lost their soldiers in accompanying a single courier a distance of a few leagues. At Madrid I waited almost a month for an opportunity to set out. It was easy to reach that city on coming from Bayonne, because the traveller proceeded under the protection of the numerous detachments which were sent to reinforce our armies: but it was necessary to be invalided in order to obtain permission for returning to France. The medical department had received the strictest orders, and furloughs were granted to none but to those of the wounded officers and soldiers who had no hope of again becoming efficient. I was one of those who were thus sent back; and glad I was to quit at any sacrifice an unjust and inglorious war, in which the strongest feelings of my heart rose in repugnance to the injury which my hand was forced to inflict.

'I left Madrid with a numerous caravan of invalided officers, who were travelling to France with an escort of no more than 75 foot-soldiers. We formed ourselves into a platoon, commanded by our senior officer, in order that we might at least die with arms in our hands; for we were in no condition to defend ourselves against a serious attack, many of us being under the necessity of being tied to our horses in order to ride. Along the tedious and silent road which we traversed, not a single traveller was to be seen: all that we met was, once in two or three days, a French convoy of ammunition or an escort which lodged with us under the ruins of deserted houses, whose windows and doors had been carried

Med off to furnish wood to our troops. Instead of the crowd of children and strollers, who, in time of peace, run out to meet strangers at the entrance of villages, we perceived a small French detachment which came forth from behind a paling or barricade, and called out to us to "halt" till it had reconnoitered us. At other times, in a deserted village, a sentinel shewed himself all at once on an old tower, like a solitary owl in the midst of ruins. The nearer we came to France, the more numerous were the *guerrillas*: but at each principal station we found detachments coming from different parts of the Peninsula, which were waiting to proceed in company with us. Whole regiments reduced to skeletons brought back in sadness their eagles and their colours, in order to recruit in France, in Italy, in Switzerland, in Germany, or in Poland.

*Operations in Portugal.* — M. de Rocca being thus obliged to quit Spain so early as 1810, he had no opportunity of witnessing the subsequent operations: but he gives (p. 336.) a sufficiently clear and impartial account of Masséna's unsuccessful invasion of Portugal. The immediate cause of the retreat of that General was the interception by the Spaniards of a convoy of biscuit, brought all the way from France, and long expected by the half-famished soldiers. This event happened very opportunely to save our troops the trouble of fighting, as the advance of Soult from the south might have encouraged Masséna to attempt the passage of the Tagus. He had constructed at Punhète, on the banks of that river, nearly two hundred boats of different kinds, and might have obliged us to divide our force, under the apprehension of Lisbon being bombarded from the south side of the Tagus. Unfortunately, the Spanish army sent to protect Badajos had been surprized on the 19th of February by Soult, who proceeded to attack the town, and was afterward expected to march northward in the direction of Lisbon.

' In the mean time, Masséna's army had exhausted the provisions of the districts which it occupied on the right bank of the Tagus, and its foragers were forced to extend their excursions fifty miles around. One part of the army was always occupied in providing for the wants of the other, and it was only at a great sacrifice that it procured a precarious subsistence from day to day. The cavalry, which ought to be in a manner the eyes and hands of an army, was confined to the task of securing its supply of provisions, and became burdensome by its numbers, on account of the difficulty of maintaining it in a country full of mountains and defiles. The *guerrillas* in Spain had grown doubly bold, since a great part of the French force was employed in Portugal, and often intercepted convoys of ammunition and provisions destined for the army in that country; and no wonder: these convoys having to

to travel nearly 500 miles through a country in a state of insurrection.

'In the beginning of March, Masséna had constructed nearly 200 boats, and completed all his preparations: but he could not attempt to pass the Tagus without receiving new reinforcements. The corps of Soult and Mortier could not give him any effectual assistance by advancing towards the Tagus before the capture of Badajoz, and that place still held out. Lord Wellington's army had not sustained any loss of consequence since the beginning of the campaign; it had lately obtained reinforcements from England; and it now amounted to nearly 40,000 British, without reckoning the regular Portuguese troops, which had been considerably increased, and were now tolerably disciplined. On the other hand, Masséna's force had been daily diminishing for seven months. — Such was the situation of the French army in this country at the beginning of March, when the news came that a convoy of biscuit which they had long expected from France was intercepted by the Spanish partizans. They had now no alternative but that of retreat, and at last abandoned Portugal without fighting a single pitched battle. Their sick, their wounded, and their baggage, set out on the 4th of March on a great number of beasts of burden, and on the 5th the army began its retreat. The skill of the French in conducting this retreat was apparent, says an English writer \*, at every movement. They overlooked no advantage which the ground offered; the rear-guards never abandoned the position which they defended, until it was completely turned; and then only to take another and defend it with equal vigour. Marshal Ney covered the retreat with chosen corps, while Masséna directed the march of the main body, keeping himself always ready to support the rear in case of need.'

We have made large extracts from this publication, under a persuasion of the fidelity and accuracy of the writer. If, in his account both of the battle of Talavera and of Masséna's retreat, we observe a latent partiality to the army to which he belonged, it is fair to add that he inserts, in the Appendix, several official accounts on the British and Spanish side of the question; and, as he wrote before the dreadful reverses of the French troops, and at a time when they found a difficulty in accounting for the failures experienced in their conflicts with the British, we are inclined to overlook this trespass. On the whole, indeed, when regarded as the composition of a young man, his work is intitled to considerable attention.

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\* 'Edinburgh Annual Register for 1811.'

**Art. III. *Systematic Education* ; or Elementary Instruction in the various Departments of Literature and Science, with practical Rules for studying each Branch of useful Knowledge. By the Rev. W. Shepherd, the Rev. J. Joyce, and the Rev. Lant Carpenter, LL.D. 2 Vols. 8vo. about 550. pp. in each. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.**

It is remarked in the preface to these volumes, that ‘ the important period of human life, which commences when young persons are freed from the restraint of school-discipline, is often ill-spent for want of some useful object of mental pursuit. Many an ingenuous youth falls into the habit of desultory and baneful reading, who, with proper guidance, might have formed a decided taste for the acquisition of wholesome knowledge, in the prosecution of which he might have improved his mind, and have been preserved from frivolity and vice. Influenced by these considerations, the authors of “ *Systematic Education* ” have had it in view to supply those, who are between sixteen and twenty-five years of age, with such guidance.’

This, then, professes to be a work for adolescents, which undertakes to teach, in a more profound and philosophic manner than it can be effected at school, the elements of general knowledge; and to indicate such books of reference as may facilitate specific application to any head of inquiry here comprehended. It is well adapted, we think, for the use also of young school-masters; who are often obliged to undertake, in behalf of particular pupils, some elementary instruction in branches of science to which parents may desire to direct the early inclinations of their sons.

The introduction contains a practical *Essay* on Education, or, as we should have preferred to term it, an *Essay* on practical Education. As far as practice implies a degree of habit beyond an essay, or first trial, no *essay* can be *practical*. The figure of speech by which an epithet is transferred from a substantive to which it naturally belongs, to some other substantive in the sentence to which it cannot belong, is common in poetry; as when Dr. Darwin writes

“ The misty moon withdraws her horned light : ”

but, even in verse, it is contrary to pure taste, and in philosophic prose is indefensible. — In the dissertation, public and private education are compared; and something like a preference is awarded to the latter for those who are intended to move in the private walks of life. Classical literature is feebly prescribed for those who do not aim at a professional career; and, in general, the modern system of encyclopedic instruction

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tion is preferred to the old method of teaching only and thoroughly the classical tongues. The modern languages are justly recommended: of which the French and the German are the most valuable as treasuries of literature, and as the means of communication in travelling. — Among the Latin grammars, Ruddiman's Rudiments deserved mention. The use of purified editions, such as Knox's *Horatius expurgatus*, and the Delphin classics, is here advised.

Chapter i. treats of fine literature, here called by the adopted Gallicism, *Belles Lettres*: but it is a reflection on our language to retain such phrases as this and *beau monde*, *bon mot*, *esprit de corps*, &c. Does our metropolis never collect the fine world, — our conversation never supply a witty saying or good hit, — or our soldiers, sailors, physicians, lawyers, and divines, never display a professional feeling?

A sketch is given of the history of literature; and five periods of bloom are indicated, when unusual clusters of famous writers flourished. The Athenian period, or age of Pericles; the Roman period, or age of Augustus; the Arabian period, or age of Harun-Alraschid; the Italian period, or age of Lorenzo dei Medici; and the French period, or age of Louis the Fourteenth; are severally enumerated. We should have added the English period, or age of George the Second; and the German period, or age of Frederic the Great.

In enumerating the distinguished English authors, we here find mention made of Tillotson and Atterbury: but Tillotson did not rival his predecessors, Hall, Jeremy Taylor, and Barrow; and what would foreigners be led to think of the state of our pulpit-literature, if we had no higher merit to oppose to that of Bossuet and Massillon? The nation, which condescends to praise insignificance, risks the suspicion of being deficient in real excellence.

The second chapter treats of Language, and gives some encouragement to the opinion of Beattie and Blair that language was supernaturally communicated to man: but it is now generally agreed that language is instinctive in the human race; and that every mother and child, if separated from the rest of mankind, would invent a peculiar and reciprocally intelligible language.

In the third and fourth chapters, the authors treat of Grammar with novelty and clearness. Much use is made of the recent discoveries of Mr. Horne Tooke concerning the original form of our prepositions and conjunctions; and the term *Restrictive* is suggested as a fit denomination for those words which are commonly called numerals, articles, and

demonstrative pronouns; and which are here maintained to be of one kind or class. The authors quote (p. 78.) the combination *healthy color* as defensible English: but we apprehend that the word *healthy* has rather an active than a passive sense, and that *healthy exercise* is a fitter expression. Concerning numerals, we spoke at large in reviewing Patrick's Collection, M. R. Vol. lxxi. p. 164.

The fifth, sixth, and seventh chapters relate to the construction of sentences, and contain rules useful to the young composer. The eighth disserts on Taste. We commonly acquire it by comparison, as an art; not by principle, as a science. Works such as "the Speaker" and the "Elegant Extracts," which bring into each other's neighbourhood the best efforts of different writers in the several leading kinds of composition, are useful in exercising the unformed taste by facilitating the comparison of excellent models. The great rule for acquiring taste is to shun the perusal of mediocrity in any line, to be habitually conversant only with the great masters, and in the case of every writer to repeat the perusal chiefly of his most successful passages. Familiarity with the select teaches the art of selecting; and the mind which dwells in good company obtains the polished tact of refinement.

The ninth and tenth chapters analyze Figurative Language: the eleventh regards Prose Composition; and the three following are allotted to Poetry. In the section concerning English Versification, it should have been stated that we scan by emphasis merely; that every emphatic syllable to us is long, and every unemphatic syllable short. Words, in which the vowels are unquestionably long, become in our poetic feet *light* syllables (as Steele proposes to call them) when unaccented; and words, in which the vowels are unquestionably short, become *heavy* syllables when accented. Thus in Pope's distich

"To make mankind in conscious virtue bold,  
Live o'er each scene, and be what they behold,"

the word *each* is short in scansion, though long in quantity; and in the line

"Man never is but always to be blest,"

the word *to* is long in scansion, though short in quantity. Beattie's chapter on Prosody is the best in his Theory of Language.

At p. 204. one of the least successful of Milton's Sonnets is given as a fine sample of that form of composition. The foreign critic will infer that we have nothing good in this line of

writing, if we produce such specimens as exemplary, and hold up the refuse of Italian art as a model in our own.— In quoting Tasso's epitaph, why employ French words? The original inscription is not in French, and our own language could have easily conveyed a closer and more concise translation.

Chapters xv. and xvi. treat of Elocution and the Method of studying elegant literature, and thus terminate the subdivision, or course of lecture. A want of proportion diminishes the value of this section. Epic Poetry and the Drama are each dispatched in a single page, while the Epitaph and Epigram attract equal attention. In general, the grammatical articles surpass those which regard rhetoric and criticism. Breton's *New Elements of Literature* (see M. Rev. Vol. lxxii. p. 517.) ought to have been consulted and imitated.

The next subdivision relates to History, and her hand-maids Geography and Chronology. To an eloquent and rational introduction concerning the importance and utility of historical studies, succeeds, in the eighteenth chapter, an account of the principal writers concerning antient times. We have no good vernacular compendium of primæval history. Eichhorn's *Geschichte der alten Welt* is now deemed the best in Europe: but our domestic writers seem not to have the courage or the learning that is requisite to appreciate critically the Jewish records. Rollin, who is here too much commended, was misled by the old scripture-critics to record wrongly the principal facts in the Hebrew annals, especially those relating to the captivity. It had not been discovered in his time, that the allusions in Isaiah belong to the siege of Babylon by Darius, and not to the siege of Babylon by Cyrus:—nor had it been discovered that Josephus relates twice over the conquest of Palestine by the viceroy of Cyrus; once after the Greek historians, who call him Cambyzes, and once after the Oriental historians, who call him Nebuchadnezzar. There is in consequence an interpolation of full seventy years of apparent but unreal event, which has disturbed the order of time, twisted the parallelism of Babylonish and Egyptian chronicles, and occasioned the absurd hypothetical conversion of Cyaxares into Darius the Mede. Rollin treats the romance of Xenophon, intitled *Cyropsædia*, as true history; and, with still greater want of judgement, he treats as fabulous the sound and trust-worthy information of Herodotus. It is not less insecure to rely on Rollin's History than on Newton's Chronology, which has been so victoriously refuted by Freret.

Modern history is reviewed in the nineteenth chapter, at somewhat greater extent, but still in too narrow a compass.  
Russel's

*Russell's Modern Europe* is highly, perhaps excessively, extolled. A disproportionate attention is bestowed on some special historians, such as Sade: but, in general, the enumeration even of French historians is scanty, and that of other foreigners is defective. Some paragraph of praise should have been allotted to the "*Universal History*," which it is the glory of our country first to have undertaken, and to have achieved so well. The German translation of that vast work contains important corrective notes; and the history of modern culture, lately accomplished by the joint labours of the Göttingen professors, has continued its narrative and supplied its deficiency in literary notices.

The twentieth chapter gives an outline of Geography. The best authority concerning ancient geography is Mannert, and concerning modern, Pinkerton. In our sixth volume, p. 542., we gave an epitome of the progress of this science; which admits of no abridgement: the entire map of the world must be stamped by repeated inspection on the memory; and the historical geography of the civilized portions must be acquired in exact and considerable detail. — The twenty-first and twenty-second chapters relate to Mathematical Geography; sketching, after Pinkerton, the principal divisions of the world, of which one here stated is his Polynesia.

Chronology follows, and occupies the xxiii<sup>d</sup>, xxiv<sup>th</sup>, and xxv<sup>th</sup> chapters. The first principle to be inculcated is to begin always with a known and ascertained date, and to reckon backwards. Who can guess the year of the world's age? Its earlier revolutions, or years, were perhaps olympiads, and perhaps centuries. Man reckoned by months before he knew the length of the solar year. This was first wholly ascertained only 888 years before Christ; for the year of Nabonassar, introduced or instituted at Babylon 747 years before Christ, did, in that year 888, begin at the vernal equinox, and consequently originated then. Previously to this period, great difficulty occurs in the ascertainment of dates. At present, all our books of chronology date the Jewish captivity, which commenced under Cyrus, much too soon; and in consequence they throw back all the annals of the Jewish kings somewhat more than two generations. When we attempt to get backwards beyond the reigns of Solomon, David, and Saul, we come to a misty, chaotic, and indefinite boundary. No satisfactory data exist for computing the interval between the institution of royalty among the Israelites, and the legation of Moses. Were the Judges successive or cotemporary rulers? Probably cotemporary, like the kings of the Saxon heptarchy; since the last anecdote in the book of Judges, that which re-



spects the Levite of Ephraim, is stated to have occurred (Judges, xx. 28.) while the grandson of Aaron was high-priest. Was Obed, the grand-father of David, born under Othniel, or under Gideon, or under Sampson? It appears from the last three verses of Ruth, that from Nashbon, the cotemporary of Moses, to David, only five generations had elapsed; which, estimated at thirty-three years, give an interval of one hundred and sixty-five years. Yet the chronological tables assume an interval of five hundred years, and pretend to tell us the century, nay the very decad of it, in which Moses flourished. Playfair dates the captivity 586 before Christ, the anointing of Saul 1099, and the legation of Moses 1555 before Christ. We should perhaps place the captivity only 527 before Christ, the death of Solomon 902 before Christ, the anointing of Saul about 1020, and the legation of Moses about 1150 before Christ. Playfair and Blair transcribe too many established blunders: but Falconer's Chronological Tables have added something to our knowledge of the date of ancient events.

In the list of eras here given, the epoch of the battle of Actium, by which the Alexandrian writers dated, has been omitted; and the Spanish era, which many chronologers omit, is noticed. The battle of Actium precedes by thirty years the Christian era; and it is important to the scripture-critic,—the prologue to the Ecclesiasticus, for instance, being dated by it. Grey's *Memoria Technica* is recommended as convenient for the recollection of dates. A summary survey of the British Constitution terminates this subdivision.

On the whole, the historical section of this work has great merit, and displays both comprehensive reading and judicious thinking. Ecclesiastical history, however, is perhaps too slightly introduced in it. The priesthood has hitherto formed the most powerful connecting medium of the people; and the religions of nations have outlasted their forms of government, and entombed successive dynasties. Hence it might seem expedient, in systems of universal history, to groupe and class nations rather by their religions than by their languages or locality; and it appears probable that a reconstruction of the religious establishments of continental Europe will form the occupation of the first lasting peace. Prussia has set the example of undertaking a new and philosophical reformation.

Chapters xxviii. to xxxiii. treat of Mathematics, under the successive heads of Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry, Conic Sections, Fluxions, Chances, Navigation, Mensuration, Surveying, and Dialling. We have not room in

in this article to speak of them in detail, and must be brief in the remainder of it.

The second volume opens with an introduction to Natural Philosophy, branched into the successive heads of Mechanics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Pneumatics and Acoustics, Optics, Electricity, Voltaism, Magnetism, Astronomy, Chemistry. Next follows a cursory account of the pursuits of Natural History, under the heads of Mineralogy, Botany, and Zoology. —These sections contain a satisfactory and sufficient grammar of science for gentlemen.

*“ Drink deep or taste not the Pierian spring”*

may be a sound maxim for authors: but, in the intercourse of private life, many topics present themselves, of which a superficial knowledge is not only preferable to ignorance, but even occasionally preferable to profundity. Dr. Johnson said of the Scotch that “ every man had a mouthful but no man a bellyfull of learning;” let us, however, recollect that learning is not the food which nourishes but the aroma which perfumes life: and that scented comfits may be chewed for social though needless for selfish purposes.—Some antiquated errors are repeated in these sections. For instance, the old doctrine of *seven* prismatic colours is inculcated: though it is now ascertained that the number of primary colours must be even; and that there are as many warm colours, or rays stained by excess of hydrogen, as there are cold colours, or rays stained by excess of oxygen.

Under the well-chosen title of Mental Philosophy, five chapters of Vol. II., numbered xi. to xv., deliver the elements of Metaphysics, or ideology, as Tracy proposes to denominate this branch of inquiry. These chapters are meritoriously executed; displaying that clearness of style which results from clearness of head; and supplying the interstices of borrowed knowledge with original thinking. It is, however, our trade to carp and cavil; and we shall therefore endeavour to find some scattered faults. P. 246. to 248., the distinction between sensations and ideas is justly given. A sensation is the change which the external surface of the body undergoes from the impression of any surrounding objects; and an idea is the change which the internal extremity of the organs of perception undergoes in the same case. Now the mind can repeat the internal impression, when the object is withdrawn which first occasioned it; and ideas, which originated in sensation, can be revived apart without any action on the senses. These mental changes are considered by the present authors as relics of sensation: but they proceed to assert that, when these ideas are in the state in which they

are retained from sensations, without being connected with any other ideas, they may be called *simple* or elementary ideas. Now the idea which accompanies sensation itself is, in our judgment, not the most simple but the most complex and complete form which an idea can assume. Then and then only it depicts the entire impression on the senses. When it is for the first time revived by the mind in the absence of the object which occasioned it, a considerable oblivion of its more minute ramifications occurs. While we are looking at the moon, we see as it were a map of America on a splendid golden circle;—when we recall the moon to our thoughts by day, the map is obliterated, and we see in idea only the circle of metallic lustre;—and when we are talking, without emphatic attention, of the next moon, the only picture which glides through the imagination is that of a shining speck. Thus each successive recurrence of an idea is liable to a progress of oblivion, an abstraction of some one or more of the originally component features of the picture. At first, it covered the whole screen on which the mind assembles her phantasmagoria; at last, it dwindles to a point almost lost in the confusion of the surrounding landscape. It is this progress of oblivion which renders an idea *simple*. The testimony of several senses was associated together in the original vivid image; the coolness of the air and the murmur of the reflecting brook made a part of the impression: at last it has faded into an indistinguishable something like the surface of a bowl of milk, and has dismissed all association with accidental phenomena. Ideas of sensation are the complex, and ideas of abstraction are the simple, ideas.

Locke commits the great error of attributing simplicity to ideas of sensation; and he is thus involved in a series of consequent mistakes, destructive of the soundness and solidity of his system, of which this proposition is a corner-stone. The authors of the volumes before us have unfortunately coincided with Locke in this particular, and have so far diminished the value of their analysis of the thinking faculty.

Another imperfection of the doctrine here taught concerning ideas is that no notice is taken of *organic* ideas. Yet we have a very numerous class of ideas which originate in the human mind independently of external impressions on the body, and in consequence merely of its internal structure. These ideas cannot well be called ideas of sensation: they do not come to us through the senses, the very definition of sensation being *external* impression. Though not innate, strictly speaking, they are instinctive, and arise in every human animal without being acquired by communication, or external experience. To these organic ideas are referable the

the intellectual features and propensities which are common to all human nature; and they form exceptions to the proposition of Locke, that there is nothing in the intellect which was not first a sensation.

To this metaphysical section, which appears to us the best in the second volume, succeed five chapters on Moral Philosophy: of which the sixteenth treats of Conscience and Obligation, the seventeenth of Self-interest and the Regulation of *sensible Pleasures*, the eighteenth of the Criterion of Virtue, the nineteenth of the Rules of Duty, and the twentieth of the Regulation of social Conduct. We do not agree with the writers that the will of God is the criterion of virtue; because the will of God is to be inferred from observation of the universe, and all that is observed to take place in it may be defended as the will of God. Now it is agreeable to the will of God that animals should destroy one another; yet we can see no virtue in this inter-destruction. Virtue consists in utility. That conduct in others which is useful to us we applaud; that conduct in us which is useful to others *they* applaud; and, when the general maxim is invented, which would combine the good of each with the good of all, and which we can all applaud, the rule of justice, or the criterion of virtue, is discovered.—No discussion is here hazarded of those points in which Christian morality differs from philosophic morality.

The xxist and xxiid chapters are devoted to Logic. The writers advise the learner to begin by Definition, and to proceed to Classification. They next discuss Propositions, Evidence of Syllogisms, and the Pursuit of Truth.

'Pre-supposing,' say they, 'a sincere love of truth, good sense, the habit of correct observation, and a discriminating judgment, the qualities and circumstances most necessary for the successful pursuit of important truth appear to be the following. (1.) Accurate attention to the import of words. (2.) Careful consideration of *all* the circumstances on which a decision is to be founded. (3.) A cautious selection of those points on which the proof really rests. (4.) The rejection of all considerations which have nothing to do with the question. (5.) Activity and perseverance in the investigations required by the object. (6.) Coolness and patience, to prevent precipitancy in drawing conclusions. (7.) Independence of mind, in opposition to authority; and fortitude, in opposition to inconvenience or injury resulting from truth. (8.) Humility, in estimating our own powers and success. (9.) Candour, in allowing just weight to the arguments of opponents, and in discerning truth in the midst of error. (10.) A disposition to be decided by the weight, not by the number of arguments or evidence. (11.) To reject no principle merely because it is new, or inconsistent with our former opinions: yet (12.) To reject no opinion because it has been generally adopted. (13.) To adhere to first principles,

ples, where really sanctioned by judicious and extensive experience, by the laws of the mind, and by the course of Providence.

In short, a sincere and ardent love of truth, firmness, activity, and caution in the pursuit of it, and a clear, manly, independent, discriminating understanding, can scarcely fail, when under the control of sound and comprehensive moral principle, to lead to such enlarging and beneficial results, as will amply repay all the exertions and self-denial, by which they have been attained.

Advice to the Student closes the section; which is too short for its purpose. We have as yet in our language no good introduction to logic, the popular work of Watts being by no means satisfactory.

Three chapters (xxiii. xxiv. and xxv.) treat with excessive conciseness of Political Economy. Dr. Adam Smith is deservedly placed at the head of all writers on this science; and some good observations are extracted from Ganilh, shewing the superior value of manufactures over agriculture, or rather of the industry pursued in towns over that of the country. Dr. Smith, in his estimate, forgot the capital value of the estate under cultivation, or he could not have asserted the superior productiveness of capital vested in farming. — The Essay concludes with an abstract of the Population>Returns.

A medical or anatomical section on Man, his Structure, and Functions, occupies the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh chapters; and a Letter on the Christian Religion terminates the book.

As in all encyclopedic works, so in this, we observe much inequality, and some deficiency: yet we think that in its present form it will be found a welcome present for the young, and a welcome guide for the mature. It will probably attain, in a future edition, proportions more judicious and instructions more complete.

ART. IV. *The Life of Philip Melancthon*, comprising an Account of the most important Transactions of the Reformation. By F. A. Cox, A.M. of Hackney. 8vo. pp. 610. 14s. Boards. Gale and Co. 1815.

THE attention of our readers was drawn two or three years ago to various circumstances in the origin of the Reformation, by an analysis (M. R. Vol. lxxv.) of a life of Luther. We are now to notice a biographical account of his amiable and enlightened friend, Melancthon; who, to the zeal common among the early reformers, had the merit of joining the suavity and the elegance of a more polished age. The materials for these lives are ample; since the labours of Sleiden, Seckert-

Seckendorf, Camerarius, and other indefatigable Germans, supply a store of such extent as to render an appropriate selection the principal duty of a biographer: but our hope of finding in Mr. Cox a judicious author, or selector, was soon damped by the common-place style of the preface, and the curious insinuation (p. 11.) that a life cannot be well written without the advantage of a personal acquaintance with the individual described. Such an outset, it will be allowed, is not calculated to excite a favourable prepossession: but we shall reserve our strictures to the conclusion of our report, and first present the reader with some interesting passages of the book.

Melancthon was born in Saxony in the year 1497, and, though he lost his father early, had the benefit of an excellent education under the direction of his maternal grandfather. He was initiated in the classics first at the school of Pfortzheim, afterward at the University of Heidelberg, and finally at Tübingen on the Neckar. His proficiency became known so early as the year 1515 to Erasmus; who, in writing to a friend, made use of these very flattering expressions: "Of Melancthon I have already the highest opinion, and cherish the most flattering hopes: so much so, that I am persuaded Christ designs this youth to excel us all."

The great difference between Melancthon and the cotemporary reformers consisted in the education of the latter being chiefly theological, while his studies were more particularly classical, for he did not become all at once a convert to the Protestant faith:

'Considering the very important part Melancthon was destined to act in the Reformation, it would be pleasing, were it possible, to trace the formation of his religious principles and modes of thinking with as much exactness as we are able to detail his literary career. The history of piety is even more interesting than the history of genius. To discriminate with accuracy the different states of the mind, to ascertain the changes of feeling at successive periods of early life, to witness at once the progressive establishment of moral character and the development of intellectual capacity, is, and ever must be, highly instructive. Melancthon was endowed with a soul formed of the finest materials, cast in the gentlest mould, and ever ready to listen with attention to reason and argument; but in proportion as the original prejudices of education had entrenched themselves in a mind delicate, discerning, and full of sensibility like his, the attempt to dispossess principles so dear to him must have been difficult and hazardous. It is long before one, so constituted, can renounce what has been held sacred; then, not without obvious and substantial reasons.'

'After a residence of about six years, Melancthon removed from Tübingen to the University of Wittenberg, the metropolis of the

the Circle of Upper Saxony. In this situation he was immediately introduced into a scene of great labour and extensive usefulness. This University was founded so recently as the year 1502, under the auspices of the Elector Frederic, who spared no pains to advance it to respectability and distinction. The licence of the Emperor Maximilian, and the bull granted by the Pope, for its establishment, are still extant. The celebrity of Melancthon, seconded by the powerful recommendation of Capnio, induced the Elector to determine upon giving him employment in the University. Several letters were interchanged on the subject, and the result was, the formal appointment of Melancthon to the Greek professorship. Upon this occasion, Capnio applied to him with prophetic accuracy the remarkable language of Jehovah to Abraham: "Get thee out of thy country, and from thy kindred, and from thy father's house, unto a land that I will shew thee . . . . and I will bless thee, and make thy name great." —

'It is amusing enough to hear the terms in which M. Baillet mentions the intimacy which from this moment commenced between Melancthon and Luther. "Being called to Wittemberg," says he, "in the twenty-second year of his age, *Melancthon fell into the hands of Luther, who abused his easy disposition, and availed himself of all those fine talents which ought to have been devoted to the service of the Catholic church.*" — In truth, this was an event of the utmost importance, not only in reference to these eminent individuals themselves, but on account of the influence of their ardent friendship upon the Reformation in general. The profound learning and cultivated taste of the one, the vigorous zeal, independent spirit, and dauntless heroism of the other, alike conduced to dissipate the delusions of the age. Both adopted the same general views; and each was equally solicitous of removing that veil of Egyptian darkness that overspread the face of the world: yet they were constitutionally different. The one verged to the extreme of boldness, the other to that of caution; but, like Moses and Aaron among the ancient Israelites, their different talents were admirably suited to promote the general object. Truth would undoubtedly have suffered had the one been less energetic and daring, or the other less moderate and cultivated.'

The year 1519 was remarkable for the first regular disputation between the Catholics and the Protestants. The former were represented by Eckius, a learned Dominican, the latter by Luther and Carlostadt; and such was the store of argument on both sides, that, after having debated for ten days, the victory remained undecided.

'Though Melancthon had undoubtedly favoured the designs, and aided the efforts of Luther previously to this conference, he was roused by the present occasion to a more particular study of the points of difference, and a more vigorous co-operation with the great champion of religious liberty. He had an opportunity of hearing whatever one of the most zealous, eloquent, and able advocates of Popery could say in defence of his system, of perceiving the

the influence of that system upon the minds of men in general, and of estimating more correctly perhaps than under any other circumstances he could have done the great importance of the controversy itself. "From the period of this famous public disputation, he applied himself more intensely to the interpretation of the Scriptures and the defence of pure Christian doctrine, and he is justly esteemed by Protestants to have been, under Divine Providence, the most powerful coadjutor of the Saxon Reformer. His mild and peaceable temper, his aversion to schismatic contention, his reputation for piety and for knowledge, and above all, his happy art of exposing error and maintaining truth in the most perspicuous language, all these endowments concurred to render him eminently serviceable to the revival of the religion of Christ."—

'Melancthon represents himself as only a spectator and hearer of this celebrated dispute, but he took the most lively interest in every part of the proceedings, and several writers have stated that he often went up to Carlostadt and whispered so many useful suggestions, that Eckius was provoked to exclaim: '*Tace tu Philippe, ac tua studia cura.*'—His opinion of the different disputants is given in a letter to a friend, and may be relied on for candour and accuracy. "Eckius was much admired for his various and striking ingenuities. You know Carlostadt, he is certainly a man of worth and of extraordinary erudition. As to Luther, whom I have known most intimately, his lively genius, his learning and eloquence I admire, and it is impossible not to be in love with his truly sincere and pure Christian spirit." It is difficult to ascertain how Eckius procured a copy of this letter, which also contained a general account of the transactions at Leipsic, but he instantly published a most acrimonious reply, calling Melancthon a mere grammarian, and with preposterous self-sufficiency affirming, that "although he might have some knowledge of Greek and Latin," yet "he was not a person with whom a divine could with propriety condescend to enter the lists."—

'Melancthon replied, in a tract consisting of only five folio pages, but written with so much mildness, elegance, and acuteness, that it proved extremely serviceable to the Lutheran cause. To railing he opposes argument, to arrogance modesty, to dogmatism, sound sense and genuine piety.'

Although the character of the reigning pontiff, Leo X., was less exceptionable than that of his unblushing predecessors Alexander VI. and Julius II., yet the conduct of the dignitaries of the church was by no means such as their situation demanded. Livings, especially when lucrative, were considered merely in the light of a provision for the younger brothers of great families, and were generally occupied by men whose habits were altogether different from those that were prescribed by the Christian dispensation. On the other hand, the humbler among the clergy, or those who were actually in the habit of attending to their duty, were accustomed

to



to deliver from the pulpit the most absurd fables about miracles and prodigies, mixed occasionally with a portion of scholastic subtilties to display their learning. The abstemiousness professed by the monks existed merely in words; and Luther alleged that fasting in the inside of a monastery was more comfortable than the diet of the generality of people on the outside.

As the character of Melancthon was very different from that of most controversialists, and forms such a contrast to the coarseness of the other religious disputants of the age, we may be forgiven for dwelling on it in some detail :

‘ He always engaged reluctantly in disputation, and was never or seldom irritated by it, even in the smallest degree. He harboured no resentments. When he retired from the field of strife, he laid aside his weapons and most willingly renounced the glory of the controversialist, for the peace and comfort of the domestic man.’—‘ *Liberality* was a distinguishing feature in the mind of Melancthon and his excellent wife ; and this was apparent both in the common acts of charity, and in the more diffusive spirit of universal benevolence.—The house was crowded with a constant succession of comers and goers of every age, sex, and condition, some pressing in to receive, and others departing well stored from this ample repository of kindness and bounty. It formed a part of their domestic regulations, never to refuse an applicant !

‘ In addition to those who frequented the house to beg, the celebrity of Melancthon proved a severe tax upon his time, for multitudes resorted to him to seek his advice, to obtain commendatory letters, to request the correction of their compositions, to lay before him various complaints, to solicit his aid in literary pursuits, or perhaps merely for the purpose of seeing so distinguished a person; all of whom enjoyed free access. Sometimes persons whom he could not altogether approve would solicit his valuable recommendations; these he has been known to dismiss with pecuniary presents, as the best method which his benevolent spirit could devise, of being released from their unwelcome-importunity.’—

‘ Melancthon was characterised by *sincerity*, and totally devoid of every thing like deceit and dissimulation. There were no reserves about him ; all was transparent, open, and honest, while at the same time his manners were remarkably captivating.—He was possessed of an extraordinary *memory*, and maintained that temperance in eating and drinking, that equanimity of mind, and those habits of reflection, which essentially conduce to the perfection of this faculty. He was also inquisitive and read much, but with proper selection; retaining not only the general strain of the discourse, but the very words of the writer. Nor were these merely lodged in his memory, for he was remarkable for the facility with which he could call into use whatever he knew. The various kinds of information he gained were so arranged in the different compartments of his great mental repository, that he could

could at any time, and without difficulty, find whatever he wanted : for he had the power of *recollecting* as well as of *retaining* knowledge. This qualification fitted him for controversy and made him peculiarly feared by his opponents.

‘Such was his *modesty* that he would never deliver his opinion upon important subjects without deliberation and serious thought. He considered no time mis-spent and no pains ill bestowed in the search of truth, and he was incessantly occupied in examining for himself.’

The prevalence of the last-mentioned feeling was strikingly exemplified by his reluctance to come before the public as an author or a critic. In this respect, as in others, he differed remarkably from his bosom friend Luther; who, without being actuated by vanity, was extremely ardent to communicate his impressions to the world, and to explain at great length the motives of his opinions. Melancthon had long kept in MS. a series of annotations on the Epistle of Paul to the Romans, of which he made use for his scholars, and in private intercourse with his friends, but which no intreaty could persuade him to publish. Luther, finding him inflexible, resorted to the bold alternative of purloining the MS. and getting it printed in Melancthon's name, without his concurrence; apologizing for this trespass in a preface to the book, given in the form of a letter, of which we quote some parts :

‘“ Martin Luther to Philip Melancthon, grace and peace in Christ.

‘“ ‘Be angry and sin not: commune with your own heart upon your bed and be still.’—I am the person who dares to publish your Annotations, and I send you your own work. If you are not pleased with it, it may be all very well, it is sufficient that you please us. If I have done wrong, *you* are to blame; why did not you publish it yourself? why did you suffer me so often to ask, to insist, to importune you to publish it, and all in vain?—As to those whom you suspect of being disposed to sneer, I have this to say to them—‘*Do better!*’—What the impious Thomists *falsely* arrogate to their leader, namely, that no one has written better upon St. Paul, I *truly* affirm of you.—I know in what sort of spirit and with what correctness of judgment I pronounce this of you. If these famous and mighty men should choose to sneer at my opinion, the consequence belongs to me, not you. But I wish to vex these scorners more and more; and I say that the Commentaries of Jerome and Origen are mere trifles and follies compared to your Annotations. But what, you will say, is the purpose of aiming to provoke these great men against me? Well—you may be humble if you please, but let me boast for you. Who has ever prohibited persons of great capacity from publishing something better *if they can*—and thus demonstrating the rashness of my judgment. For my part, I wish we could find out those who could and would publish something better. I threaten you,  
further,

further, to steal and publish your remarks upon Genesis and the Gospels of Matthew and John, unless you supersede me by bringing them forward. You say, Scripture ought to be read alone and without a commentary; this is right enough if you speak in reference to Jerome, Origen, Thomas Aquinas, and others of the same class, for their commentaries are the mere vehicles of their own notions, rather than the sentiments of Paul, and the doctrine of Christianity; but no one can properly call yours a commentary; it is rather an introduction to the study of Scripture in general, and a guide to the knowledge of Christ: in which it surpasses all the Commentaries hitherto published. As to what you plead, that your Annotations are not in all respects satisfactory to yourself, it is difficult enough to believe you.—Art thou not a man? Art thou not a servant of Christ? Has not he endowed thee with capacity?

The liberty thus taken had no effect on the mild temper of Melancthon, who maintained unvaried harmony with his friend, under circumstances of considerable discrepancy in their religious belief:

‘The conduct of Melancthon and Luther to each other affords an admirable illustration of the true *basis* of religious friendship. They were not perfectly *agreed*, but they were perfectly *united*. Mutual forbearance admitted the free exercise of an independent mind, and secured the rights of conscience and the purity of principle. Societies have been distracted, families divided, and even empires convulsed, from the existence of differences in religious sentiment or practice, far less considerable than those which subsisted between these eminent friends. They knew each other, and did not allow the whirlwinds of a temporary passion to dissipate feelings founded on the best principles, and cherished by an unreserved intercourse.—If, therefore, our friendships were formed upon more solid principles of union than they frequently are, it is obvious they would prove more satisfactory, more beneficial, and more permanent. In all our religious intercourse, it would be wise to aim rather at securing the essentials of Christianity, than to be solicitous of accomplishing what is notoriously impossible, a perfect agreement in points of inferior consideration.—I oft think on the examples of Luther and Melancthon. It was not a few things that they differed in, nor such as would now be accounted small, besides the imperious harshness of Luther's disposition (as Carolostadius could witness), and yet how sweetly and peaceably and lovingly did they live together, without any breach or disagreement considerable.’

It was highly fortunate for the cause of the Reformation, that so cordial a concurrence subsisted between these eminent men, since they were of the greatest utility to each other in the grand contest with the Catholics. Luther excelled in theological knowledge; Melancthon in elegant and impressive composition. Luther, the senior by fourteen years, was

fitted by his courage, his activity, and his disregard of personal hazard, to stand forth the founder of a new edifice: Melancthon, less bold, but more reflecting and more learned, possessed those qualities which consolidate the fabric and give a finish to the superstructure. So early as the year 1522, when Luther was confined in the castle of Wartenberg, he wrote to his amiable friend; "If I perish, the gospel of Christ will not perish, and you, I hope, like another Elisha, will succeed Elijah."

Melancthon, as if destined to resemble Luther in every part of his career, terminated his life in 1560, at the age of 63, like the great father of the Reformation. He had been for some time sensible of his approaching end, and felt no other wish than that of continuing his lectures and labours of utility as long as mental and corporeal means remained. That he had no desire for a protracted term of days is sufficiently apparent from the following paper, drawn out in the last year of his life:

'He wrote down in two columns, on a piece of paper, the reasons why he should not be sorry to leave the world. One of these columns contained the blessings which death would procure; namely, *first*, that you will come to the light—*secondly*, that you will see God—*thirdly*, that you will contemplate the son of God—*fourthly*, that you will understand those admirable mysteries which you could not comprehend in the present life—*fifthly*, that we shall know why we are created such as we are—*sixthly*, that we shall comprehend the union of the two natures in Jesus Christ. The second column assigned two reasons why we should not regret departure from the world—*first*, because you will sin no more—*secondly*, because you will no longer be exposed to the vexations of controversy, and the rage of theologians. The following is an exact copy.

' *A Sinistris.*

Discedes à peccatis  
Liberaberis ab ærumnis et à  
rabie theologorum.

' *A Dextris.*

Venies in lucem  
Videbis Deum  
Intueberis filium Dei  
Disces illa mira arcana quæ in hac  
vitâ intelligere non potuisti:  
Cur sic simus conditi  
Qualis sit copulatio duarum na-  
turarum in Christo.'

We are sorry that we can by no means place the composition of Mr. Cox on a footing of equality with the interest of his subject. The above extracts would be by far too flattering if taken as specimens of the work at large, since they are selected from the most impressive passages, and several intervening paragraphs are omitted as redundant or superfluous. Mr. Cox seems

REV. JULY, 1816.

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to have acted on the plan of putting in print, in the shape of translation or extract, all that was calculated to swell the volume, without having the slightest sympathy for the undue share of labour thus imposed on his readers. No sooner has he placed Melancthon in the Professorial chair at Wittemberg, than he launches out (p. 40.) into a long and wearisome detail of the Aristotelian doctrine; as if it had not been enough to notice, in a few plain sentences, that the barbarous logic, founded on the writings of the Greek philosopher, had formed almost the only branch of academical education throughout Europe during the dark ages. In the sequel of his work, also, he can scarcely mention the title of a single publication by Melancthon without introducing a variety of extracts from it. To these objections we must add a complaint of the insertion of minute or improbable anecdotes (p. 292.); while other passages (as in p. 114.) display examples of inflated and declamatory description. All these blemishes prevent us from concluding in terms of commendation; and we cannot help thinking that the book would have been much better if it had been compressed into a third, or into the half, of its present size. It was injudicious, likewise, to give a portrait of Melancthon in the last year of his life, and in a form which, though it may exhibit a likeness of his features taken separately, certainly conveys an impression very different from that of the general mildness of his look. The *fac-simile* of his writing, however, is a very fit accompaniment.

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ART. V. *A System of Mineralogy*. By Robert Jameson, Regius Professor of Natural History, Lecturer on Mineralogy, and Keeper of the Museum in the University of Edinburgh; Fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies of Edinburgh; President of the Wernerian Natural History Society, &c. &c. Second Edition. 3 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

THE original form of this work, with all its crudities and imperfections, bore creditable testimony to the extent of professional information possessed by its author; and, during the very tardy progress of the present edition through the press, the learned Professor has not only availed himself with diligence of the most recent sources of additional knowledge, but has re-moulded and enlarged the first part of his system with much judgment and assiduity. Volume I. and a part of the second contain his exposition of the first class, or the Earthy Minerals, which are no longer divided into *Genera*, but simply into *Families* and *Species*. The former are denominated the *Diamond*, (though chemical precision would require

quire its removal to the third class,) *Zircon, Ruby, Schorl, Garnet, Quartz, Pitchstone, Zeolite, Azure-stone, Felspar, Clay, Clay-slate, Mica, Lithomarge, Soap-stone, Talc, Hornblende, Chrysolite, Basalt, Dolomite, Lime-stone, Apatite, Fluor, Gypsum, Boracite, Baryte, and Hallite*. The strict propriety of some of these family distinctions, particularly of Clay and Clay-slate, and of some of the modifications of calcareous matter from Lime-stone in general, may admit of doubt; and it would have been desirable to specify the appearances and properties of the several earths, in a state of purity, before the mixed conditions in which they occur in their native repositories had been detailed.

We extract the account of the last-mentioned family, because it is short, and may be new to some of our readers :

‘ XXVII. HALLITE FAMILY.

‘ This Family contains but one species, viz. Cryolite.

‘ Cryolite.—Kryolith, *Werner*.

‘ Alumine fluatée alkaline, *Hauy*, t. ii. p. 398. — Chryolith, *Reuss*, b. ii. 2. s. 556. *Id. Lud.* b. ii. s. 148. *Id. Suck.* 1<sup>th</sup>. s. 532. *Id. Bert.* s. 278. *Id. Mohs*, b. ii. s. 237. — Alumine fluatée alkaline, *Lucas*, p. 27. — Kryolith, *Leonard*, Tabel. s. 42. — Alumine fluatée, *Brong.* t. i. p. 164. *Id. Brand*, p. 87. — Kryolith, *Karsten*, Tabel. s. 48. — *Id. Hans.* s. 121. — Alumine fluatée alkaline, *Hauy*, Tabl. p. 22. — Kryolith, *Lenz*, b. ii. s. 943. *Id. Oken*, b. i. s. 399. *Id. Aikin*, p. 126.

‘ *External Characters.*

‘ Its colour is pale greyish-white, snow-white, and yellowish-brown. It occurs massive and disseminated. It is shining, inclining to glistening, and the lustre is vitreous, inclining to pearly. The principal fracture is foliated, with a threefold cleavage, of which the folia are parallel to the planes of a rectangular parallelopiped; the cross fracture is uneven. The fragments are cubical or tabular. It occurs in straight and thick lamellar distinct concretions. It is translucent. It is softer than fluor-spar. It is brittle. It is easily frangible. Specific gravity, 2.949, *Hauy*. 2.953, *Karsten*.

‘ *Chemical Characters.*

‘ It becomes more translucent in water, but does not dissolve in it: it melts before it reaches a red heat, and when simply exposed to the flame of a candle. Before the blow-pipe, it at first runs into a very liquid fusion, then hardens, and at length assumes the appearance of a slag.

‘ *Constituent Parts.*

Alumina, - - -	24.0	21.0
Soda, - - -	36.0	32.0
Fluoric Acid, and Water, 40.0	40.0	47.0
	100.0	100.0

‘ Klaproth Beit.  
b. iii. s. 214.

*Vauquelin, Hauy,*  
*Traité*, t. ii. p. 400.

‘ *Geognostic and Geographic Situations.*

‘ This curious and rare mineral has been hitherto found only in West Greenland, and but in one place of that dreary and remote region, viz. the fiord or arm of the sea named Arksut, situated about thirty leagues from the colony of Juliana Hope. It occurs in two thin layers in gneiss: one of these contains the greyish and snow-white cryolite, and is not intermixed with other minerals; the other is wholly composed of the yellowish-brown coloured variety, mixed with galena, iron-pyrites, sparry iron-ore, quartz, and felspar. They are situated very near each other: the first is washed at high water by the tide, and a considerable portion of it is exposed, the superincumbent gneiss being removed. It varies in thickness from one foot to two feet and a half in thickness. \*

‘ *Observations.*

‘ 1. As this mineral, when exposed to a very low heat, melts almost like ice, it was named *Cryolith*, from *κρυος*, ice, and *λιθος*, stone.

‘ 2. It has been confounded with Heavy-spar, from which it is distinguished by inferior specific gravity, and its easy fusibility before the blow-pipe: it might also be mistaken for some varieties of Gypsum, but is distinguished from these by superior specific gravity, and its not exfoliating when exposed to the blow-pipe.’

Under several of the families, various new species are introduced, having been discovered and examined since the publication of the first edition.

The remaining portion of the second volume exhibits the contents of the second and third classes; namely, the *Saline* and the *Inflammable Minerals*, the former under *Orders* and *Genera*, and the latter under *Families* and *Species*. The orders of Salts are, in course, the *Earthy*, *Alkaline*, and *Metallic*; and the Inflammable Families are the *Sulphureous*, the *Bituminous*, the *Graphitic*, and the *Resinous*. Vol. III. is occupied with the Metals; which, being twenty-two in number, are arranged under as many *Orders*, comprizing their respective species.

Now, although we are not disposed to attach great importance to the mere titles of the divisions and subdivisions of any science, provided that they be sufficiently perspicuous and commodious, we cannot much approve of changing them, without necessity, in the course of the same methodical arrangement. The term *sub-species*, too, is not a very philosophical category; especially when the object of which it is predicated, as in the instance of lucullite, heavy-spar, &c. is again divided into two or more *kinds*.

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‘ \* Allan and Giesecké, in Thomson's *Annals*, vol. ii. p. 389.’

To the second volume, as being the least bulky of the three, is subjoined an Appendix, containing descriptions of seven additional species; namely, *Pyreneite*, *Humite*, *Fibrolite*, *Lythrodos*, *Rhätinite*, *Platiniferous Copper Ore*, and *Chrichtonite*, supplementary notices of British Localities of Minerals, and Tabular Views of Systems of Mineralogy. — Many of the crystalline forms of the species are illustrated by an appropriate series of figures, contained in thirteen plates.

Professor Jameson's nomenclature, though less grating than it was formerly to an English ear, is still susceptible of improved euphony, and might well dispense with such terms as *grossular*, *chiastolite*, *sphragide*, *calc-tuff*, *calc-sinter*, *meerschau*, *clinkstone*, and *stinkstone*. Names, however, not yielding to the foregoing in obscurity or uncouthness, deform the vocabularies of other systematical writers on the same subject; and patience will, in all probability, "have her perfect work," before the growing evil of multiplied synonyms shall compel some association of philosophical mineralogists to frame a catalogue on the principles of simplicity and uniformity.

Of careless, inelegant, and incorrect modes of expression, these volumes furnish more instances than can be patiently tolerated in a work of a purely elementary and didactic nature, and which exhibits no list of errata. The following we note in the order in which they saluted us:—'Besides these two colours, it occurs;'—'*ananting*;'—'longitudinal streaked;'—'concealed foliated;'—'scopiform diverging fibrous;'—'promiscuous, scopiform, and scalar-wise aggregated;'—'the acuminate planes touch other;'—'characteristic for the species;'—'Its dull and even fracture distinguish it;'—'in the island Sicily;'—'near the town Goda;'—'both of the primitive, transition, floetz, and alluvial classes;'—'indeterminate angular;'—'It occurs massine, tuberose, and a shape;'—'very slightly common flexible;'—'finer granular;'—'imperfect floriform foliated;'—'the radiated varieties, &c. occurs;'—'when the truncations on the angles becomes;'—'and hard other minerals;'—'Eizenertz and Schladinirig in Stiria affords it;'—'The fragments is;'—&c. &c. — The orthography of the names of places is, on many occasions, needlessly varied; and in one passage we are informed that, in Upper Egypt, the potstone is named *Pierre de Baram*, as if the natives of that country spoke French.

We observe, with much satisfaction, that Mr. Jameson has considerably enlarged his lists of references, and his notices of the chemical composition and the crystallized forms of the several species; that, in imitation of the laudable example of



Brongniart, he carefully states the discriminating characters between species which the student might readily confound; and that he adverts with more uniformity than heretofore to the economical uses of the productions which he describes. On this last-mentioned department of his subject, he even leads us to expect the appearance of a separate work. If this and the geological portion of his labours shall be as much matured as the part of the system which he has already unfolded, we may confidently predict that the whole will form a most valuable record of the present state of human knowledge relative to the mineral kingdom: but, while we venture to augur thus propitiously of the *matter* of the Professor's future volumes, we would earnestly exhort him to pay some attention to the language in which that matter is conveyed; to preserve peace and good neighbourhood between a verb and its antecedent; and to beware of interlarding the current English of the realm with those lumps of *indurated talk*, which are little suited to jaws that are *not particularly difficultly frangible*.

ART. VI. *A Treatise on the External, Chemical, and Physical Characters of Minerals.* By Robert Jameson, Regius Professor of Natural History, &c. &c. &c. Second Edition. 8vo: pp. 320. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

**A**N acquaintance with its arrangement and nomenclature is an indispensable pre-requisite to the study of mineralogy. The means of procuring this acquaintance have been supplied, with more or less ability, by various writers; and, in our own country, by none with more success than Mr. Weaver and the learned author of the present treatise. To the purchasers of the second edition of the *System of Mineralogy*, recently published by the latter, (and noticed in our preceding article,) the essay before us will prove a desirable acquisition; not only because it proceeds from the same pen as the work which it is intended to explain, but because it is printed in the same form and type. It contains, besides, a succinct and perspicuous account of the rival method of arrangement followed by Haüy and the mineralogists of the French school. The whole is illustrated by a series of suitable plates.

In framing a Tabular View of divisions and terms, prefixed to the more detailed explanations, Professor Jameson has more happily conceived than executed a German, French, and Latin translation of the characteristic epithets. His German equivalents are, we believe, generally correct: but they are occasionally omitted; and, at page 33., the phrases *longitudinally* and *transversely streaked* are rather *queerly inverted*.

verted. Sometimes, we can find no Latin interpretation, and meet with an obvious misprinting, as *obseletis*, *bellulosa*, *planem*, &c. We can perceive no good reason for the French adjectives, applied to coloured delineations, being put in the singular, and the corresponding Latin, with one exception, in the plural; nor for the neuter gender being preferred when *figura* is the implied antecedent. At page 40., 'on four sides' is rendered '*duobus lateribus*;' doubtless from mere inadvertence: but such a slip, like those of the press, should have been corrected in a list of errors, for which we have searched in vain.

In the French department of his vocabulary, the Professor's omissions and mistakes are still more numerous. *Externe*, for example, is confounded with *exterieur*; we meet with '*leur variations*,'—*imperfait*,—'*très gros*,' for the translation of large,—*bulbeux* and *tuberculeux*, predicated of *forme*,—*mi-roirée* for *miroilée*,—*tabuliformis* for *tabuliforme*,—*emmelées*, we presume, for *entremêlées*,—*biais* for the adjective *oblique*,—*irreguliere* with *contour* for its antecedent,—*fossil* for *fossile*,—'*la trop grand petitesse*,'—*long*, as the equivalent of *longish*,—'*la surface interieur*,'—*etoilles* and *entoilles* for *étoiles*,—'*des pieces separés*,'—*lises* for *lisses*,—*viscuse* for *visqueuse*,—*mediocriment* for *mediocrement*,—'*par la frottement*,'—and *salée* as the French of *sweetish taste*. *Fluid* is translated by *parfaite*, *unctuosity* by '*toucher ou gras*, and *garlick-like* (we like not this licking-like language) simply by *ail*!

Our utmost reverence for the oracles of the Wernerian school can never cordially reconcile us to such expressions as *scopiform*, *pair-wise*, *scalar-wise*, *seldmer*, *exacter*, *oryctognost*, *oryctognostically*, *unctuosity*, *suitability*, &c.

The author's ordinary English is less faulty than it was in the first edition: but it is still occasionally deformed by a few vulgar improprieties; as the inelegant suppression of the relative pronoun, the indiscriminate use of *each other* and *one another*, a plural verb when disjunction between two nouns is expressed, *the whole colours*, *the whole species*, &c. for *all the colours*, *all the species*, &c.

Most of the definitions contained in this volume are sufficiently perspicuous: but, even in the first page, not fewer than three of them include the very terms which they are intended to explain; and the same remark applies to that of *Amygdaloidal*, at page 128. *Microcosmic salt* is stated to be a very generally useful flux: but, for the sake of the uninitiated, its composition should have been particularized.

In every publication of which the object is to elucidate the language and elements of any department of science, we are intitled to call for correctness, precision, and neatness of style. To the display of these qualities, the present writer will sometimes be found *unconformably-wise* disposed: yet his explanatory labours possess great intrinsic merit, and will eminently contribute to facilitate the apprehension of his large work.

ART. VII. *An Historical Review of the Policy of the British Government, in the Treatment of its Catholic Subjects; with a Consideration of their present Claims.* By Henry William Tancred, Esq., Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 341. Booker. 1815.

WE all know that the slave-trade was long assailed before it was abolished; and that the Legislature, which but a few years ago sanctioned the traffic, has lately declared the carrying it on to be felony, and made penal the lending of money for that purpose. In the same manner, the persecution of the Catholics is still slow in expiring, and strives hard to prolong its hateful existence: but its struggles are vain, and we have no doubt that we shall ere long witness its last gasp. "Persecution!" say its abettors, "the Catholics suffer no persecution; they are permitted to worship God according to their consciences, without restraint or molestation of any kind." To the persons who put in this disclaimer, we shall beg leave to propose a case. A young man finds a liberal career open to his means and views, the bar for instance, or the army; he enters on the one or the other, his progress is rapid, no obstacle stands in his way, and he bids fair to reach the head of his profession: but alas! he soon discovers that he must stop short; and the ardour of his pursuit is damped by learning that in the one case he cannot get beyond a stuff gown, and that in the other he can never command a brigade. Would it not be more manly and less ungenerous to forbid his entrance on the course at first, than thus to arrest him in the heat of the contest, condemn him to torpidity, and force him to behold the palm borne away by competitors much his inferiors? To an ardent nature, alive to honourable feelings, and desirous of distinction, what can be so mortifying as this treatment? The soul that does not feel in such a case cannot be that of a man! — and is not this persecution? It is persecution, it is torture, and of a most exquisite kind. It is not, indeed, to persecute after a vulgar manner: but it is to persecute the most worthy, to inflict such sufferings on a fine nature as it feels

feel with extreme poignancy, and are adapted to give it the most acute pain.

Let us take the case of a Lord of Parliament who is a Catholic. He is stripped of all the privileges of a Peer, and reduced to the situation of an ordinary man;—he is no longer the hereditary counsellor of his king, no longer an hereditary representative of the people, no longer a member of the most august council of the nation, of the supreme tribunal of the empire;—he is not even a conservator of the peace in his own district. These privileges are rarely lost but with life. In the list of civil offences, scarcely one incurs a penalty of such awful magnitude. It is a civil death,—death to his native rank and all its proud appendages. In the whole of our history, few are the instances of such punishment having been so undergone; yet it is regularly inflicted on account of religion;—and still this is not persecution!

We will put another case, which is very nearly as hard as the one last mentioned. Suppose that a person's fortune and character are such as intitle him to be a representative in Parliament; he has the confidence of all his neighbours, they are anxious to repose the high trust in his hands, and they would all poll for him to a man. He is, however, a Catholic; and, if we may use the expression, he is expelled the honourable House before he is admitted into it: the law will not suffer him to come within its walls. Yet this is not persecution, if we listen to some people, nor any thing but what moral and humane persons may inflict on their fellow-subjects. Is it nothing for our Catholic youth to be excluded from our Universities, and to be prohibited from the advantages and emoluments which laymen may there acquire?—from foundations too, that owe their establishment to our Catholic ancestors! An English Catholic cannot be even an exciseman or a tide-waiter! Still, all this is not persecution!—Finally, we state a case in the pathetic words of the present author:

'To all who will admit that individual distinction has charms, the absence of which hereditary wealth or rank cannot supply, I appeal, and desire them to reflect upon the condition of one of the higher class of English or Irish Catholics:—of a gentleman who can look back two, three, or four hundred years, and trace his ancestors aiding their country in the cabinet or the field; who retains perhaps their property, inherits their spirit and talents, but cannot reach their eminence. With the few of these whom chance has thrown in my way, I feel cut off from the most interesting topics of conversation, and debarred any freedom of intercourse, because I am unwilling to start subjects inflictive of mental pain, and which rouse a sense of unmerited persecution.'

Is this an affected delicacy on the part of the author ; is it misplaced or overstrained ? On the contrary, nothing can be more becoming or proper, more strongly display the hardships of the case, or place in so clear a view the corroding feelings and silent sufferings of the individual thus *persecuted*.

Mr. Tancred sets out with the proposition that the end of all government is to promote the greatest good of those over whom it is exercised ; and he takes it for granted that this will be the case with respect to the majority, (we presume that he restricts the observation to representative governments,) though the minority may be deprived of privileges enjoyed by the greater number : but then he contends that nothing will warrant such a measure except the good of the whole society, and that it ought to cease with the cause which requires it. According to this view of the subject, the inquiry appears to be very important, whether the British government, which refuses the privileges of the constitution to the Catholics, who constitute one-fourth of the population of the united kingdom, is or is not justified in so doing. Mr. Tancred first puts the claims of the Catholics on the grounds of expediency, and argues thus :

‘ If from a review of the merits of the Catholic question, it shall appear, that to be a good Catholic a man must be a bad subject, as some represent, then is his religion not merely speculatively erroneous, but politically dangerous : and the restraints imposed upon him can certainly be justified. Still their expediency is another, and by no means a subordinate question. To have no choice but between dangers is not an uncommon situation for a legislator to be placed in ; and should the security for fidelity to the constitution which a Catholic can give be imperfect, yet, if the danger arising from his admission to all its privileges is less than that from his exclusion, though he may have no right to demand, it may be highly expedient to grant what he seeks.’ — ‘ The very essence of political wisdom is to deal with men not according to what they have been, or even what they now profess to be, but according to what in effect they really are. To rake into obnoxious articles of creeds ; to imagine that principles of faith are under all circumstances principles of action ; to overlook that some may be counteracted by other principles ; and that all are influenced by motives of security, interest, honour, gratitude, charity ; to contend that doctrines which, when combined with particular causes, have in one age been followed by certain effects, may not in another, when the same causes have ceased, or other causes have begun to operate, be wholly inactive, or produce contrary effects ; all this, though it may suit the purposes of a wilful and determined antagonist, is not the line of conduct which a conscientious and intelligent legislator will pursue.’

While

While Mr. Tancred is contented that his hypothetical case should stand indebted for mild treatment to expediency, he argues that to the real case relief ought to be afforded on the ground of right. He shews that, at the Reformation, the two religions, the new and the old, equally insisted on uniformity, and were equally intolerant; and not till long afterward did either the one or the other cherish ideas of toleration: while even at this day we are not arrived at perfect religious freedom, of which the question now in discussion is a melancholy proof. He asserts that the act, which vested the supremacy in Henry VIII., transferred to him all the powers which the Pope claimed, completely annihilated religious liberty, and made over the conscience of every man in the kingdom to the monarch. Though he does not deny the civil delinquencies of the Catholics in remote times, he finds the causes of them, not in the nature and principles of their religion, but in the penal laws; the legislature compelled them to be bad subjects, the government obliged them to become apostates or rebels. This view of things is in the main just; yet, at the same time, we see no harm that arises from acknowledging, and the fact requires it, that at the time of the Reformation, and long afterward, the Catholic religion persecuted with a very high hand; nor is this to be regarded as unnatural in her then circumstances. She was of the highest antiquity, incomparably more antient than any civil polity, and claiming to receive her authority immediately from the Divinity; any resistance to her was regarded with inconceivable horror, as flying in the face of Heaven and fighting against God; all attacks made on her would be considered as made on society itself, and destructive of all order, civil as well as spiritual. It is no wonder, then, if she asserted her high prerogatives with extraordinary energy; and if, having so much to lose, she had recourse to all sorts of attempts to preserve that which she considered as her peculium. If, when united with the civil power, she would fiercely persecute, it would be not less natural for her to indispose her votaries from peaceable subjection to Protestant governments, to feel a desire to be reinstated in her lost authority, and to regain her lost rights, more especially if the one and the other party bordered on equality. That this has been the case with the Catholic religion, in days past, is too evident to be denied; while it appears to us to be equally clear that, since its professors have had time to reflect coolly on the real posture of things, and to become sensible of the corruptions and abuses which had incorporated themselves with their faith during a long period of ignorance, they have simplified their religion, and have rendered it

it as incapable of giving umbrage to civil government as any of the churches which have grown out of it: from which, indeed, it seems little to differ except in matters of discipline, and in acknowledging a foreign head, whose authority it wholly confines to spiritual concerns.

Commenting on a phrase current in the mouths of some people, but to which he objects, Mr. T. makes these pertinent remarks:

‘ Is the constitution fundamentally Protestant, because the authors of some of its provisions were such? If the habeas corpus act be fundamentally Protestant for this reason, then is magna charta for the same fundamentally Catholic, and trial by jury fundamentally Pagan, because traced by some to Woden, the god and legislator of the Saxons. But this is absurd; and the constitution is nothing but a collection of civil rules, written or unwritten, and of immemorial usages; to the full benefit of which all who are enabled and inclined to pay that obedience which is necessary for its support, are entitled.

In order to heighten the character of the Catholics, we do not think that Mr. Tancred was required to depreciate that of the Puritans. The following passage is little applicable to them:

‘ The confusion of all order, religious and civil, the destruction of all elegance, the deprivation of all learning, are among the consequences to be dreaded where such a spirit of religion has deeply infected a people. While the mind is gasping after unattainable purity, the ordinary decencies and duties of life run an imminent hazard of being undervalued and neglected. The salutary checks which the moral sense or common reason afford, are displaced and rejected; and the individual is delivered over a prey to absurdity and extravagance. The very strength with which a villainous propensity is entertained too often passes for a proof that it is an inspiration. The lowest and weakest of mankind are naturally most disposed to embrace a system of religion, in which, no preparation is requisite to become a proficient, no endowments natural or acquired are availing; and every debauched and delirious mechanic is happy to be convinced with Mawworm in the play, (the *Hypocrite*,) that he is particularly favoured, and is sure that he has had a call.’

If to the charge of ‘ gasping after unattainable purity’ they must have pleaded guilty, in all other respects they were unexceptionable. They were persons of eminent piety, sound learning, and most pure morals; and they scarcely differed in any respect from the reformed churches abroad.

We apprehend that our readers will not be displeased with the manly sentiments on the subject of government which are avowed by this advocate of the Catholics:

‘ Whatever

‘Whatever sycophants may choose to assert, under every monarchy the people are more patient of tyranny than the sovereign of restrictions on his power. Of the tendencies of the monarch on the one hand towards despotism, and of the people on the other towards resistance, the former is perpetual, the latter occasional. To represent monarchy then as of divine origin, to hail a human being as the “breath of our nostrils,” the “anointed of the Lord;” to maintain that under the most cruel oppression, no resource is left for the subject but prayers and tears; what is it but to inflame that contempt for the rights of others, and that desire for uncontrouled power which rulers so naturally entertain? These principles, not having their foundation in our nature, are abandoned in emergency. The miserable James had no warning given him by others that he might expect resistance, and was deluded to his ruin by false professions which he had not himself the sagacity to distrust. How much more noble, how much more conducive to the mutual interests and tranquillity of subject and sovereign, are the opposite doctrines of the Whigs! That resistance to arbitrary power is a natural right which cannot be abandoned, is a principle so interwoven in our very frame, that it will be acted upon, independently of all reasoning, whether it be professed or not; but if professed, and held up before the eyes of rulers, while it has little effect in making resistance more frequent, it has a most beneficial influence in applying that timely corrective to ambition, which may render resistance unnecessary. Whiggism, rightly understood, and sincerely practised, raises loyalty from a passion to a principle, and if it moderates the power of the ruler, ensures its continuance.’

Speaking of the oath of allegiance which was appointed at the Revolution, Mr. Tancred says,

‘To all Protestants an obligation less rigorous, more strictly civil, less interfering with any doctrinal point of their religion, could not be framed. So thoroughly, however, were the doctrines of passive obedience and divine commission ingrafted into the principles of the national church, that the oaths were rejected by eight spiritual peers, five of whom were in the number of those whom James had committed to the Tower. I beg leave no longer to use my own words, but those of Tindal, from whom the above account is taken:—“From this time may be dated the rise of the Non-jurors, who, rejecting the notion of a king *de jure*, and a king *de facto*, as well as all other restrictions and limitations, strictly adhered to the divine right of kings, and were the authors of all the plots and conspiracies against the new settlement, which they refused to acknowledge.”

‘We learn from the same authority, that by many of the clergy the oaths were indeed taken, but with such mental reservations and distinctions as rendered them of no avail; and only afforded them greater opportunities of overthrowing those liberties which they had sworn to support. William seems to have had but too much reason for lamenting the factions and heats within the nation,’



nation, and that the clergy, instead of allaying, did rather foment and inflame them. The Revolution may more justly be said to have been imposed upon the church of England, than seconded by it. —

‘ In 1695, when the Jacobites had determined to commence an insurrection by the murder of the King, Sir John Friend and Sir William Parkyns were convicted of the full offence; and at their execution justified the attempt; notwithstanding which, three Non-juring clergymen had the impudence, publicly upon the scaffold, to give them formal absolution by the imposition of hands.’

Mr. T. thus concludes his observations on the present topic:

‘ I defy any anti-catholic to produce an instance from our history where the resistance to the civil government was so unprovoked, or carried to more dangerous lengths, than this of the Non-jurors. What! when stale accusations from the remotest periods are heaped up to impeach the Catholic principles, is the reputation of the whole body to suffer for the conduct of a small part of it? or are we to forget that the knife was perpetually at their throats, and that they were a race hunted out by proscriptions, and tortured by every species of vexation that malignity could devise? At the period of history we are now considering, a new government had been established, though not with unanimity, yet, as every thing had proved, in compliance with the wishes of a great majority of the people. To what rigours had the church of England been exposed under it? An attempt had indeed been made to admit their Protestant fellow-countrymen to a participation in the benefits of the new constitution. This had failed. Yet a portion, and a large one too, of members of the established religion could be found, after the experience which the nation had suffered of James's character, so enamoured of slavery, that they were content to seek the restoration of it by the murder of the new monarch, and at the imminent hazard of their religion. Are we still to be told, that the church of England has always been more favourable to freedom than that of the Catholics? I am very happy and willing to believe, that by the extinction of the house of Stuart, and other causes, the loyalty of the church of England at the present day is better informed than that of their ancestors: all that I ask, and which (unless subsequent events repel the proof) common justice must grant, is, that the Catholics may be allowed to shew, that as once they shared in the political errors of that church, they have partaken of its repentance.’

Warmly as the author vindicates the claims of the Catholics to the privileges of the constitution, he is nevertheless a most dutiful and respectful son of the Established Church. Let him speak for himself, and our readers listen to his professions:

‘ Actuated by nothing but the spirit of truth, I have freely delivered my opinion of the political merits of the church of England;

England; and have lamented, as uncharitable and unwise, the persevering opposition of some of its most distinguished members to the Catholic claims. I trust this may be done without a suspicion of indecent hostility, or of latitudinarian principles. Believing, as I sincerely do, that its doctrine is the purest draught from those fountains, to which all Christians in common resort; that its discipline is the happiest mean between degrading superstition and disgusting fanaticism; and that, combined, it presents a scheme of worship, which the weakest of mankind may sufficiently comprehend, and from which the wisest need not recede, I think it a slander upon its excellence to suppose, that it can dread a competition with any rival sect whatever.'

We cannot enter more minutely into the contents of this excellent tract, which does so much credit to the head and the heart of its author; and in perusing which we are at a loss to decide whether to applaud most his zeal for his clients, or the ability with which he serves their cause. He enters fully into the subject, expresses himself neatly, and reasons closely: while, by the selections from our history which he has made, and the sensible observations with which he accompanies them, he shews that he has read it with attention and discrimination. We must not dismiss his labours, therefore, without expressing to him the warm acknowledgements which, as well on our own behalf as on that of all the friends of religious liberty, we conceive to be his due.

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ART. VIII. *A Practical Explanation of Cancer in the Female Breast, with the Method of Cure, and Cases of Illustration.*  
By John Rodman, M.D. &c. Paisley. 8vo. pp. 240. 8s.  
Boards. Underwood. 1815.

IT appears that the publication of this volume was immediately produced by the Society which was established in our metropolis for the investigation of Cancer; a number of queries being circulated by them among practitioners in various parts of the country, to which Dr. Rodman thinks that answers will be found in his treatise, although they are not given in a direct manner, but are left to be inferred from the facts and reasonings which he adduces. He informs us, in the preface, that his mind has undergone a remarkable change in the views which he has taken, at different times, of the nature of cancer. He originally supposed that there existed in the constitution what has been called a cancerous diathesis, which operates in some specific or even mysterious manner, unlike any other morbid process to which the body is subject: but more extensive experience has induced him to alter

alter his ideas; and he was gradually led to a very opposite opinion, viz. that cancer is a local disease, and that it does not possess any of those malignant or poisonous qualities which are usually assigned to it.

In order to support a doctrine so much at variance with that which is generally maintained, the author begins by considering the character of the female constitution; viz. as very delicate, easily thrown out of its proper bias, and rendered still more so, in the generality of instances, by the modes of life and forms of society to which females are necessarily subject. From the nature of the uterine and mammary systems, (the usual seat of cancer,) their frame may be regarded as more complicated in its structure and actions than that of the male, and therefore, independently of its delicacy, more liable to be deranged. The mental powers of females are evidently less firm and vigorous than those of the other sex; they are almost the exclusive subjects of hysteric and a long train of similar diseases; and they are, partly from original constitution and partly from acquired habits, much more exposed to dyspeptic ailments. These constitutional peculiarities lead immediately to affections of individual organs; especially of those that are complicated in their structure and functions, and liable to variations in their mode of action. The uterus and mammæ belong to this description of parts, and are of course prone to those evils to which the general habit subjects the whole frame.

After these preliminary observations, Dr. R. proceeds to a more particular consideration of the nature of the breast, its structure and actions in the healthy state, and the deviations from them which are supposed to constitute the commencement of cancer. The two circumstances on which he dwells, as most important in considering the healthy action of the mamma, are its variation in bulk according as it is more or less distended with milk, and the alteration which it experiences from the periodical revolutions of the uterus. These natural changes, which necessarily occur in the most favourable states, and in the most healthy condition of the gland, are much more felt when the constitution is feeble, or when the nervous power is labouring under any cause of irritation. Independently of these circumstances, although often connected with them, is the effect of external violence, either in the way of a sudden injury, or in what more frequently happens, of long continued pressure. From the combination of these causes, a foundation is laid for a morbid tenderness of the mamma, which is then easily excited into undue action, and thus a certain degree of uneasiness or enlargement is produced

in the organ. Hitherto, however, nothing has occurred that may not be regarded as the natural result of external circumstances, acting on an irritable part; no characteristic symptoms of cancer have appeared; nothing which can indicate either a specific action or a malignant tendency.

So far we follow the author without much difficulty, and feel disposed to coincide with him in the greatest part of his ideas: but we now enter on more disputable ground. The third chapter is intitled, 'the Locality of Mammary Disease, arising from Affections of the Mind;' the object of which is to prove that the apprehension of cancer actually produces it. This doctrine, which at first view must appear in the highest degree singular, and even fanciful, is principally founded on the speculations of Dr. Adam Smith on the influence of sympathy: who conceives that a forcible impression of pain, existing in the body of another individual, really excites a degree of the same pain in the corresponding part of our own body. To a certain extent, we may admit the truth of this opinion; and we may also go so far as to imagine that, when the breast of a female has been slightly inflamed by an accidental circumstance, the horror of cancer, by directing the thoughts to the part and producing a constant emotion of uneasiness in reference to it, may increase the tenderness and perhaps even the tumor of the mamma. We will let the author, however, explain his hypothesis in his own words:

'There is a peculiar sympathy which reigns amongst females respecting cancer of the mammae. Many feel afflictive sensations of concern, whenever they hear of another being distressed with a mammary tumor named cancer. They reflect upon the calamities of this distemper with feelings of horror, particularly because the extent of these calamities is unknown, and because obscurity involves every relative circumstance, while they anxiously compassionate the state of the patient. Their interest in her ailments gains upon them, and brooding over ideal miseries, unhinges the mind, till the frame is disturbed, and disorder commences in their own breast. Hence the lively conception of sufferings from the mammae of others affects these organs in themselves, by their attention resting upon them, which, in progress of time, occasions a painful plethora at a similar part.

'But the case is still worse, when any of these females have a breast in which a tumor of the same kind is growing. It may often have produced fears and suspicions, when local pain was roused by new disease, and became a cause of agitation; yet, as the pains abate, the fears generally subside, and the return of ease leads on to tranquillity. However, under all this, the hope of its not being really cancer supplies consolatory support, and the mental influence ceases to disturb the gland. Whereas every consolation is speedily done away, by hearing that an acknowledged judge

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pronounced another tumor true cancer, known to have had the same origin, the same symptoms, and the same appearances. There is a natural alarm excited, now, for private safety, and this alarm, sharpened by sympathy for the other female, enters the mind so forcibly that its effects may be observed in a few hours, from swelling, uneasy warmth, and uncommon tenderness of the whole breast, with lancinating pains, and an increasing fulness all round the tumor.

'It is from the workings of this latent agency, the mind, that the well known fact may be explained, of mammary affections being more active in some districts of a country than in others. And practitioners have often remarked, that an unusual number of females seek after medical advice for diseased mammae, about the time of a cancerous breast having been cut off in their neighbourhood. The alarm spreads quickly amongst them, and those who think they have complaints of the kind, by musing upon the agonies of an operation, or the ravages of the disease, bring these views home to themselves, and lose all power to restrain their fears. In such a state the mamma is the object on which imagination settles, and in which it causes plethoric swelling, that soon enlarges a small tumor, hurrying the unguarded sufferer to steps of precipitation.'

On this ground, Dr. R. proceeds to explain all those circumstances which occur in the progress of the disease; and to point out the beneficial effects which are produced when the feelings are soothed by the assurances of the practitioner, and the individual is strictly enjoined to refrain, as much as she can, from dwelling on painful associations. Several cases are detailed in support of this doctrine, in which tumours, that had been pronounced cancerous by professional men of celebrity, and the patient had been doomed to the operation, were removed, or at least alleviated, by simply relieving the mental anxiety. Among the causes which produce tumours in the breast, and aggravate those that already exist there, the author forcibly insists on the operation of cold. In furtherance of this opinion, he finds that the application of warmth, or rather the steady employment of those means which retain the natural heat of the body, are among the most successful agents in removing tumours of the breast; and indeed to these he principally trusts for his method of cure.

We have as yet advanced only to that stage of the disease in which a tumour is formed in the breast; to which tumour the name of scirrhus is generally applied; and which has been regarded as the precursor of the more dangerous state, when it assumes the form of an open ulcer. We might conceive the possibility of the increase of vascular action being excited by mental impressions, and even the consequent enlargement of the part: but can we imagine that absolute ulceration will be

produced, or that any morbid process can ensue, similar to that which constitutes the open cancerous sore? This the author attempts to explain in the ninth chapter; in which he traces the progress of the complaint from the first feeling of uneasiness to the hardened glandular tumour, then to the more active inflammation of that tumour, and lastly to its actual suppuration. We think, however, that the links which compose this chain of reasoning are feebly connected together; and that, were we to advance beyond the existence of the inflamed tumour, and even to admit the possibility of ulceration being formed, we still meet with no explanation of the peculiar character which the ulceration in this case assumes. The ensuing paragraph exhibits a very loose mode of reasoning on the subject:

‘It is in such a situation as this that the temper is often soured, and that the want of hope produces a want of steadiness in the mind. And if the mamma was easily disordered by cold, &c. before, when the induration and the vascular irritability were the only troublesome causes of complaint, it increases more than ever, now, in the susceptibility for disordering influence, while there is less vigour of mind in the patient to correct any errors of judgment. Thence the edges of the ulcer begin to appear in a swelled and inflamed state, by which they ultimately harden. They become ragged and unequal; painful, and reversed in contrary ways; when risings and excavations may be seen on the surface of the sore, unless a very careful and rational mode of conduct and treatment be pursued.’

Agreeably to the doctrine which forms the peculiar trait of this work, the cure of even this form of cancer is supposed to depend much on the state of the patient's mind; all irritating applications are deemed injurious; and it is inferred that recovery is not beyond the natural powers of the constitution.

We shall conclude our review of Dr. Rodman's work with recommending it to the attentive perusal of the members of the medical profession. Without assenting to all his opinions, and certainly without carrying them nearly to the length to which he has extended them, we apprehend that they contain valuable matter for reflection. It is much in favour of the doctrines inculcated by him, that they tend to produce present comfort; that they are all on the soothing plan; and that they are adverse to the performance of painful operations, the success of which is at least dubious, and which are seldom followed by any good effect commensurate to the suffering and anxiety that are their necessary attendants.

ART. IX. *Elements of Political Science.* By John Craig, Esq.  
3 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1200. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and  
Davies.

**F**EW kinds of writing are less calculated to flatter an author with the prospect of popularity than philosophical disquisitions. The major part of such publications in the present day belong, we apprehend, to that ill-fated class which, according to the evidence of an eminent bookseller, given nearly two years ago before the Copy-right Committee, is not destined to the honour of second editions. Still, however, writers are to be found, both on this and on the other side of the Tweed, sufficiently confident in their powers to enter into that field which others have attempted with so little success; and we have, in the author of the volumes now before us, the example of one who has not scrupled to devote a considerable time to this difficult and uninviting species of composition. His work is very elaborate, and may be arranged under the following heads.

Vol. I. On the Principles of Moral Approbation, and on the Degree of Approbation bestowed on the several Virtues, personal and social; Rights of Government; Distribution of Political Power; Administration of Justice.

Vol. II. Of National Defence; of the Direction of Capital and Industry; of the Corn-Laws; Distribution of Wealth; Poor-Laws; Public Seminaries for Education; Religious Establishments.

Vol. III. Taxes;—viz. direct—on Land; on the Interest of Money; on the Transfer of Property; on Houses; on Law Proceedings;—Indirect Taxes; On the Necessaries of Life; on Luxuries; on Licences; the Funding System.

Before we proceed to make comments on the execution of the book, we shall lay before our readers an extract of some length, and shall make choice of a passage expressive of the writer's opinion on the subject of the poor-laws. Having mentioned that the severe punishments denounced in England in former ages against mendicants had been found ineffectual, and that government had felt the necessity of providing for the poor at the expence of the community, he adds:

‘ The right, however, of government to levy taxes, for the support of the poor, is inadmissible except under great limitations. Charity, though a moral duty incumbent on all, belongs to that class of duties which cannot justly be enforced. The refusal to alleviate the sufferings of our fellow-creatures properly subjects us to general contempt and detestation; but as the rights of others are not infringed by our hardness of heart, as their condition is rendered in no respect more intolerable, our refusal cannot subject

us to punishment; and of that, of which the omission cannot be punished, it is obvious that the performance cannot be compelled. Here law has no province. It must be left to the feelings and conscience of each individual, how far he may choose to deprive himself of part of his luxuries, in order to feed the hungry and clothe the naked. It is equally unjust to compel him to do so by penalties, and to take away his property for this purpose without his own consent. A tax, levied avowedly, not for the benefit of the contributor, but of others possessing no claim over his property, seems repugnant to the first principles of just government; and it is probably from some obscure perception of this injustice, that poor's rates, even to a moderate extent, as those levied in some parts of Scotland confessedly are, excite more dissatisfaction, than the heaviest taxes for the service of the state.

But there is another view in which a moderate provision for the poor will appear less exceptionable. The preservation of our own existence, and that of our helpless offspring, is so strongly recommended to our care by nature, that neither a sense of duty, nor the fear of punishment, can deter him, who is perishing by want, from invading the possessions of his neighbour. Human laws, for obvious reasons, have made no exceptions on account of this irresistible temptation, but there never has been an instance of the infliction of punishment where the existence of such extreme poverty was satisfactorily proved. It requires little observation to be convinced, that, almost in every mind, the idea of right will yield to the assaults of absolute want, and little philosophy to conclude, that what, in the particular circumstances, is almost unavoidable, is no proper object of chastisement. If the poor, then, be not supported, theft and robbery must often be left unpunished. — In order to repress crimes, punishment must be regular and certain; and, that in every case we may have a right to inflict punishment, the irresistible temptation of extreme want must be removed. If voluntary contribution cannot afford that assurance of support which may prevent self-preservation from being arrayed against the dictates of morals and the ordinances of law, this is strictly one of the cases, in which public regulations are requisite for the benefit and safety of all the citizens. Poor's rates, therefore, may be levied, not for the purpose of enforcing the duty of charity, but as the only effectual mode of protecting property. This argument, it may be remarked, justifies no public provision for the poor beyond a bare subsistence; a restriction which sound views of policy would equally suggest.

It has indeed been argued, that all certainty of the poor being sheltered from absolute want is inexpedient, as it may relax the industry and economy of the labouring classes. Hold out to a labourer, it has been said, the certainty of maintenance in his old age, and he will neglect to make provision for himself during his youth; shew to the idle and dissolute that, when sick or out of employment, they will be supported by the state, and they will instantly devise means to exempt themselves from labour; provide for the support and education of the children of the poor, and marriages



will be contracted without even the expectation of the offspring being reared by their parents. The more you increase your funds, the more will you increase the number of those who look to them, not to their own exertions, for support; and without diminishing in any degree the sum of human misery, all that the public regulations can do is to throw the burden of maintaining the idle and profligate on the industrious and deserving.

'In this representation, if applied to poor's rates as they exist in England, there is probably little exaggeration; but the abuses of that particular system are not justly chargeable against every public provision for the poor.'—

'Overseers, annually elected by the inhabitants of each parish, should determine at stated meetings held once a week, on all petitions for assistance; they should appoint an inspector, with a moderate salary, and removable at pleasure, to report to them the condition of each applicant, and from this report, the testimony of the neighbours, and, when necessary, a personal examination of the state of the family, they ought to decide on the nature and amount of the relief to be granted. There probably ought to be a small establishment, supported in the most frugal manner, for such old people as have no near relations with whom they could reside: but the parish assistance should, in general, be issued partly in money, and partly in provisions; and the overseers should be sworn to administer only such relief as, in conjunction with each pauper's earnings, would, in their opinion, maintain him in less affluence than a common labourer. The overseers ought to be enjoined to keep a register of all who receive charity, specifying their age, their state of health, the number of their family, their usual earnings, and the amount and nature of the assistance afforded them. They ought also to keep a list of all applications that had been refused, with the reasons of their rejection. These lists ought, for a certain number of days each year, to lie open for the inspection of the inhabitants; and at the end of that time, they should be submitted to a meeting of superintendents of the poor (also elected by the inhabitants), who might give the overseers such directions as they judged requisite, and who should, at the same time, fix the amount of the annual assessment. By some such plan as this, it is probable that abuses would be at least as effectually checked, as by any trustees appointed to distribute the produce of a voluntary contribution; nor will the example of Scotland, where the affairs of the poor are gratuitously administered by the vestries, and in some of the larger towns by delegates from the several corporate bodies, allow us to doubt, if the utility of the system were evident, of the ease with which overseers and superintendents would be found among the respectable classes of the inhabitants.'

An outline of the plan of the work is given at the end of Vol. III. in an 'Analytical Table of Contents,' which occupies nearly 30 pages, and forms a very useful clue to a train of reasoning that in itself can hardly be called attractive. From the short

short statement given at the outset of this article, our readers will perceive that a very small part of the publication is allotted to the 'Principles of Morals.' Under the next head, viz. that of 'Government,' Mr. Craig has exhibited only a general view of the respective rights of the governors and governed, avoiding all examination of particular constitutions; and he has been guided by a similar rule of restriction in the succeeding division, which treats of 'the Duties of Government.' On coming to his second volume, however, or what may properly be called the Politico-economical Department, he has chosen to be much more minute; contemplating his subject under a variety of relations, and never scrupling to give scope to his talent for reasoning, at the hazard of prolixity.

It would be difficult to meet with a more impartial reasoner than Mr. Craig: but the title which he has assigned to his performance is vague; and the subjects introduced in it, although sufficiently connected in the eye of the philosopher, will appear disjointed to the man of intercourse and business. The latter will consider observations on the principles of morals, and even on the principles of government, as foreign to the politico-economical branch; and he may likewise object to the insertion of a disquisition on 'National Defence,' in a work of which the main part is occupied by observations on the direction of capital and the distribution of wealth. He may farther allege that the principles of taxation, being an object of study only to a small number of the community, should not have been treated at such length in a production of which a considerable portion addresses itself to the consideration of the whole mercantile body. In support of such animadversions, it may be remarked that, by this unlucky admixture, the more useful part is in a manner hidden from observation. Thus, though Mr. Craig advocates with great propriety (Vol. ii. p. 33.) the cause of education among the lower orders, and explains (p. 347.) with equal judgement the limitation with which classical studies ought to be pursued at our Universities, his arguments may be said to be removed from the access of those whom they would interest, by being mixed up with so miscellaneous and un-inviting an assemblage.

Such will probably be the objections to the *plan* of the present work; we are next to advert to the merits of its *execution*. Mr. C. deserves the praise of thinking deliberately and even judiciously on most subjects: but his remarks are seldom either new or striking. He who attempts to attract attention to philosophic writing should make a point of con-

fining himself to a specific department, in the hope that his thorough familiarity with principles, and an apt illustration of them by examples, may compensate with the public for the dryness inherent in the subject. We all know how greatly Dr. Smith failed in giving interest to political economy; and that, in consequence, though his production is very generally circulated, it is much oftener seen on the shelf than on the table. The study of conciseness in style; the introduction of amusing illustrations; a careful arrangement of materials; the abridgment, or removal to the appendix, of the more dry and difficult reasonings; are all considerations that ought to be uppermost in the minds of didactic writers. Yet, instead of proceeding on this cautious plan, Mr. Craig seems to have felt little distrust of the interest of his subject, and to have deemed himself perfectly at liberty to permit what Dr. Johnson perhaps would have called the "free exercise of ratiocination." He seems, in fine, to be a serious student, who continues to commit to paper one reflection after another, without ever suspecting that the majority of his readers are less philosophic than himself, and seldom turning aside to strew his path with the flowers of composition.

Wishing to give our readers some idea of Mr. C.'s manner of treating financial topics, we perused with attention his observations on the operation of the funding system, but without the satisfaction of meeting any passage of which the reasoning was clear and concise. The following are extracts, or rather excerpts; to procure which, short as they are, we found it necessary to lop off a number of tedious and obscure sentences:

' Every loan, whether applied to the ordinary or extraordinary expenses of the state, must absorb part of the national capital. In a commercial country, there are no funds hoarded up, no sums of money which can be drawn from repositories, and lent to the public, without diminishing that stock by which industry is supported. There is consequently no person who can lend to government, without circumscribing his own trade or that of others. What is so lent was formerly capital; but no sooner does it reach the public treasury, than it loses this character, and, in place of giving rise to production, equal both to its amount and to a profit on its employment, it is converted into a fund destined to the immediate expenditure of the state. The amount of a loan, therefore, is the exact measure of the capital that has been consumed.

' Nor does a public loan create any new inducement to economy, by which this waste of capital might be repaired. No one finds his wealth directly diminished by the increase of national debt. —

' A contribution, on the other hand, if for the purpose of supporting the ordinary peace establishment, holds out new inducements to private economy. Each person considers his taxes as  
part

part of that annual expenditure which is to be proportioned to his annual income. If he find that he is living at greater expense than is consistent with his plans of bettering his condition, from whatever cause this extravagance may have arisen, whether from his own indulgences, the rise of the price of commodities, or additional taxes imposed by the state, he immediately sets about correcting the error into which he has fallen. He will thus pay his share of the public contributions by his own privations; his parsimony will supply the expenditure, even though lavish, of the government; and the riches of the inhabitants, the amount of the annual produce of the land, capital, and labour, will be unimpaired.

‘The ordinary peace establishment, then, if raised by taxes within the year, though it may steal away some of the comforts and luxuries of the people, occasions no loss of national capital similar to that which ensues from a loan.’—

‘The expences of a modern campaign to Britain are probably more than five shillings in the pound of the free income of all the inhabitants. It would surely be in vain to expect such a retrenchment as might save this sum within the year. To make a great and sudden change in the style of living, even when absolutely necessary, requires a great effort, of which, while a probability remains of the war being soon at an end, neither the necessity nor propriety will be apparent. In such circumstances, the greatest retrenchment likely to be proposed, even by the prudent, would extend only to what might be requisite, by repairing, during several years of peace, the breach that had been made in their fortunes, again to replace them in that degree of wealth from which, for a time, they had somewhat descended.’—

‘At the commencement of every war, there is a considerable derangement of the ordinary course of trade. Some channels are interrupted, others altogether stopped up; and the capital which was accustomed to run in those channels is forced to seek new issues. During the continuance of a war, too, many occurrences take place which narrow the market for particular kinds of goods. The loss of a colony, the conclusion or infringement of a treaty, the increased rate of freight, the danger of capture, or the variation of foreign exchange; any one of these circumstances may exclude our produce from countries where it formerly found an extensive and regular demand. Capital is thus, from time to time, thrown idle, in circumstances that may render its possessor unwilling to engage in new speculations. Those branches of trade which are flourishing may be unknown to him, or they may be attended with more risk than he is willing to run, or they may be of such a nature that, if he were to embark in them, he could not withdraw his capital at the return of peace, when he might again wish to resume his former employment. He is, therefore, inclined to lend his money to government, until he may find a better use for it; and thus the public expenditure will be defrayed without cramping or contracting any of those branches of business which continue to be prosperous. No doubt, without public loans, a great part of the capital thrown out of its usual track by the vicissitudes

tures of war would, of itself, take the same direction. Those merchants, whose trade was unembarrassed, would prefer borrowing the amount of their contribution, to the contraction of their business; and if they were in good credit, or could offer sufficient security, such as were possessed of spare capital would lend it to them, almost as readily as to the state. But some time would necessarily elapse before these two parties became acquainted with each other's wants, and many difficulties would occur before such as could best employ the stock were in a condition to give satisfactory security for its punctual repayment. By a public loan, that is done instantly and almost imperceptibly, which could otherwise be accomplished but slowly, after having occasioned much temporary loss, anxiety, and embarrassment. But the capital thus thrown idle at the commencement of a war, or in consequence of its vicissitudes, will not, in ordinary cases, be nearly sufficient for the annual expenditure, and the deficiency must be supplied, by withdrawing stock from what still continue to be profitable employments.'

We turn with pleasure to a part of the subject in which Mr. Craig is evidently more at home; and in which, as we have already hinted, the benefit of a general diffusion of the elements of education is very satisfactorily illustrated:

'A very unreasonable and illiberal prejudice, against extending the benefits of education to the lower orders of the people, has sometimes been avowed. Even the being able to read, it has been alleged, renders the people impatient of labour, dissatisfied with their condition, profligate in their morals, and turbulent in their dispositions. The wants of society, it is observed, require some to be employed in the lowest and most degrading offices; and to what purpose, it is asked, would you improve the minds of those who can be happy only in proportion as their ideas are grovelling and unrefined?

'Whatever truth there may be in such representations arises from education being so uncommon among the lower orders, as to give some degree of elevation to those by whom it is possessed. In knowledge itself there is surely nothing that can injure the human character. It is difficult to conceive that instruction in moral duty should be unfavourable to virtue; that the opportunity and habit of comparing opinions should promote political or any other delusion; that acquirements common to all the inhabitants should inspire any one with self-conceit, or occasion that restless ambition, which, proposing to itself no attainable object, generates discontent, and leads to idleness and profligacy.—The people of Scotland, among whom reading and writing are very general acquirements, may surely challenge a comparison, for honesty, industry, and submission to the laws, with the more ignorant populace of other nations.

'But if the simpler parts of education, reading, writing, and arithmetic, are not detrimental to morals, their general dissemination must be attended with the most desirable effects. The insuperable

superable bar which now obstructs the progress of the lower orders being removed, an ardent desire of getting higher in the scale would pervade the nation, from which superior activity, diligence, and energy of mind, might confidently be predicted.—

‘The benefits to individuals and society, that might be expected to result from the prevalence of such feelings and habits among the people, are beyond calculation. There are few, if any, occupations, in which useful improvements might not be expected from intelligent workmen; nor is there any limit to the new processes that might be discovered, the new employments for industry that might be introduced, the new channels of commerce that might be opened, if the great body of the people were accustomed to some degree of thought, and placed by early education in the road to wealth and honours. Even if reading should save a few hours from dissipation by suggesting other and better sources of amusement, still more, if occasionally it might impress moral lessons on the heart, how amply would the expense of education, and the time employed in acquiring knowledge, be repaid to the people?’

‘It is only the simplest parts of education, indeed, which ought to be indiscriminately extended to the whole of a nation. To those who must depend on daily labour for their subsistence, and are not likely to rise to any higher order in the state, instructions beyond reading, writing, and the easiest operations of arithmetic, would be superfluous, if not detrimental. But if this degree of education were extended to all, such as showed superior abilities would be enabled to proceed, while the rest, though better qualified to understand and improve the ordinary arts of life, could have acquired no refinement of imagination or delicacy of feeling, to unfit them for daily labour. If there be any necessary employments so degrading in their own nature, that a man of plain sense, if taught to read, and informed of his duties and his rights, would turn from them with disgust, such offices would be left to those who ranked the lowest in intellect, till, by the improvement of machinery, other powers were substituted for the labour of man.

‘Taking it for granted, then, that some degree of instruction is good for the people, we proceed to enquire in what manner that degree of instruction can best be extended to all the citizens of the state.

‘If parents, in the lower ranks of life, had themselves received the benefit of a good education, or were in circumstances more favourable to the growth of family affection, all interference of the community would be unnecessary. But owing to excessive inequality of property, and the vices which it generates, workmen are too often exposed to the pressure of want, or the solicitations of vicious indulgence, to think of expending any part of their wages on that instruction for their children of which they cannot estimate the value; nor can they always be induced to deny themselves the earnings of the premature and constant labour of infants, equally injurious to the future strength of the body and to the powers of the mind.—Some regulations seem necessary to counteract

counteract these selfish propensities of parents, and to secure to the young such branches of education as may enable them to prosper in the world, and become valuable members of society. To accomplish this, two objects must be attended to by the state; that the father should be induced or compelled to give proper education to his children; and that he should easily find the means of performing this duty.' —

'General emulation might easily be excited by public examinations, public rewards for proficiency, and public censure on such parents as had neglected the education of their children; and there would be no difficulty in procuring the occasional attendance, at those examinations, of people of a superior rank, well qualified to exercise this salutary censorship. The mere publication, from time to time, of the names of the best scholars, and of those of the parents whose children had been remarkably neglected, would be enough to ensure a reasonable degree of instruction to all the people. Such a publication could not be considered as an unjust infliction of punishment. It would only be a declaration of the truth, followed indeed by disgrace, but by disgrace arising entirely from the disapprobation in which the delinquency was held by the people. Of punishment springing necessarily from the sentiments of mankind, and consisting merely in the expression of these sentiments, no person can have any right to complain.

'Should such motives be effectual, every direct control over parents in the management of their children ought to be avoided. But if experience should prove that selfishness overpowered both parental affection and the sense of shame, some farther legislative provisions might become necessary for the interests of the children and the good of the state. The great object of such regulations would be to make instruction go hand in hand with the employment of youth. For this purpose, it might be provided, that no child under twelve years of age, unless an orphan, should be received into any manufactory, as an apprentice or otherwise, without being able to read; and that every child of a more advanced age, so employed, until he had acquired the prescribed branches of education, should be instructed during one of the ordinary working hours of each day. Public examiners should be appointed, without whose written certificate, no master should engage any child, or excuse him from attendance at school; and every violation of the law should be punishable by a heavy fine recoverable, for his own behoof, by any informer.

'If, by these, or other regulations, a general desire for instruction could be diffused among the people, it can scarcely be feared that teachers, sufficiently qualified for the employment, would be wanting. To teach the simple branches of education necessary for every class of the people requires no more ability than to excel in many trades; and there are few districts of a cultivated country, in which the inhabitants could not easily maintain a schoolmaster, whose wages need not much exceed those of a mechanic. Even in a neighbourhood so thinly inhabited, that a sufficient number of scholars did not reside within a reasonable distance,

distance, it is by no means certain that any public interference or aid would be required. Some workman better educated, or who thought himself better educated, than the rest, would easily be induced to dedicate part of his time to the instruction of youth. The demand, as in other cases, would lead some of the inhabitants to qualify themselves for this particular employment, and their remuneration would depend on the same principles by which the wages of all other descriptions of labour are regulated. It is never conceived to be necessary to assign a salary to a shoemaker, in order to induce him to reside in a particular district, even although the want of demand for shoes should force him, at particular times, or during part of each day, to have recourse to some other means of gaining his livelihood. —To teach is upon the whole a much more agreeable employment than the greater part of manual labour. While it is more cleanly and less fatiguing, it flatters the desire of distinction, the love of sway, and many little vanities of the human heart. It would, therefore, draw some of the most intelligent from other trades; and it is to be feared only, that the great competition of teachers would so far reduce the rate of wages, as to render this, which ought to be a respectable profession, one of the least lucrative, and, therefore, to men of ambition, one of the least desirable, employments.

These different passages, we find it incumbent on us to repeat, exhibit the work on its fair side. The topic, in the first and the last of our extracts, is too clear and familiar to admit of an intricacy, the effect of which however is painfully felt by the reader whenever Mr. C. attempts to tread on abstruse ground. At the same time, the fault is not so much in the diction as in the arrangement of his matter. Taking it for granted that his readers are able or willing to supply the defective links in his chain, he appears to have seldom stopped to ask himself whether one passage was a suitable preparation for another, or to combine an unattractive course of reasoning in such a manner as that it might engage attention by the advantages of perspicuity and method. The consequence is that, amid all the justice of his arguments, and all the fluency of his periods, we have found the perusal of the book to be a task, and have been made to feel impatience to exchange it for a more inviting occupation.

The title of the first chapter of the second volume, 'on National Defence,' brought to our recollection a publication on a similar subject (M.R. N.S. Vol. li. p. 350.) by an author who had not the good fortune to attain the age requisite for the composition of finished works. Young, however, as he was, Mr. Macdiarmid felt that he had trespassed in that work, both in diffuseness of style and in extent of discussion; and he gave the public, in his subsequent "Lives of British Statesmen," an example of the improvements of which experience may be productive



productive to a well organized mind. That such would be the case with regard to Mr. Craig, if he should take up a more pleasant subject, we are justified in anticipating, from the decided superiority of his 'Elements of Political Science' to the above-mentioned publication of his short-lived countryman.

ART. X. *Theory on the Classification of Beauty and Deformity, and their Correspondence with Physiognomonic Expression, exemplified in various Works of Art, and natural Objects, and illustrated with four general Charts, and thirty-eight Copper-plates.* By Mary Anne Schimmelpenninck, Author of "A Tour to Alet." 4to. pp. 431. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Arch. 1815.

THIS elegant volume is in every way adapted for the use of the elegant world. The production of an accomplished female, it naturally breathes that purity, piety, and refinement of taste and sentiment which characterize the softer sex:—the effusion of a disinterested author, it exhibits a luxury and opulence of illustration and ornament, which almost render the text superfluous to the instruction or the pleasure of the examiner.

In the introductory address, the writer gives a biography not of herself but of her work; describing how much of accident and how much of intention contributed to the assemblage of the materials,—in what the original arrangement differed from the eventual disposition,—and where exuberance has been sacrificed to proportion, or deficiency filled up for the sake of completeness. This peep behind the curtain of the boudoir gracefully discloses, not the secrets of authorship, but the natural interior economy of polished occupation.

The first part treats of the constituent principle of Beauty in general; which is here defined to be 'that which gives pleasure to the mind in objects of sense.' This definition is somewhat deficient, as it applies rather to the fine arts than to fine writing. There are beautiful passages in the poets, of which the effect does not depend on sensible imagery: there are other and looser passages, at war with moral beauty, which notwithstanding give pleasure to the mind, and derive it from sensible imagery. Hogarth places beauty in curved lines: Lord Kaims, in simplicity: Burke, in littleness, smoothness, delicacy, and gradual variation of contour: Hume, in utility: Sir Joshua Reynolds, in a central or average set of features. We recollect to have read a good analysis of beauty, in the "Disquisitions" of Dr. Sayers: who maintains that, with whatever forms we associate pleasing ideas, those forms

forms appear to us beautiful. Hence he denies the existence of any absolute perpetual standard of beauty; and he infers that the individual of a class of objects is justly to be esteemed more beautiful than the rest, with the whole of which, or with its component parts, when properly understood, the greater number of the excellences of its class are universally associated. That object, then, if such an one could be found, might justly be esteemed a standard of beauty, with the whole appearance of which *all* the excellences of its kind are universally associated. The progress of knowledge is continually unfolding some new law of animal nature: features which antiquity admired, such as the low forehead, are now known not to be indicative of either intellectual or corporeal perfection; and they no longer appear beautiful, because they are not at present associated with pleasing ideas.

This primary division of the work branches into five chapters. The first defines taste and beauty, discriminates between the colloquial and the critical meaning of the words, and explains the manner of applying these terms that is adopted in the subsequent pages.—The second chapter discusses a variety of ingenious systems, which are made to destroy one another by their contrariety and inconsistency. Various genera of beauty are specified; and much progress is made in diminishing that confusion of applauding phraseology, in which admiration vents its delight. Incongruity is emphatically stated to destroy beauty.—The third chapter undertakes to explain the reasons in which the several predilections of mankind respecting beauty originate. True beauty, it is inferred, requires pleasing as well as homogeneous expression.—The fourth chapter suggests a curious and ingenious speculation. It is contended that the same succession of tastes may be traced in all nations at the various epochs of their civilization. According to this fair author, the law of progression is the same in bodies of men as in individuals. That which pleases a boy pleases a young nation; that which pleases a man is also preferred by a mature community; and that which pleases senility is in favour with societies already verging towards declension. We rather question this proposition. All civilized communities have a cotemporary public of boys, of men, and of greybeards, and have authors at work for each public at the same time. Surely the writings of Hume and Gibbon announce the mellowest maturity of social opinion; and they are succeeded by the juvenile feeling and purity of Southey's poems, which resemble the vernal blossoms of literature. Unmixed nations grow up and decay like a homogeneous grove; and the whole  
plantation

plantation becomes together copse, timber, and touchwood: but the mixed nations rear at once annual and perennial, vernal and autumnal plants, and nurse side by side the deciduous willow and the centennial oak. Where the giants of the forest are hewn away, various petty twigs succeed: some of which in turn will spread abroad their umbrellas of foliage, and crown the hill afresh with woods of other tint.

Chapter v. proceeds to antithetic classification; opposes to the sublime, the horrible; to the sentimental, the *porcine*; (a word invented by the author;) and to the sprightly, the flip-pant. A contrast follows between each species of beauty, and the corresponding species of deformity: but these classes do not appear to us well-chosen: they are vague, indefinite, and not exhaustive.

Notes are attached to the several sections, which display extensive reading, and collect not common information: but of these appendages throughout the book, we may say that they are too copious as notes, and too liberal in quotation.

Part II. examines what may be called metaphysical beauty, in opposition to physical beauty; or the action of ideas on our judgements respecting external nature. It is here contended with Priestley, Sayers, Alison, and the other partisans of the Hartleyan metaphysics, that the association of agreeable or disagreeable feeling with external objects is the source of beauty and deformity. Not all the precision of which the subject is capable has here been displayed. No distinction, for instance, is made between ideas which are necessarily and ideas which are arbitrarily united; between (as we incline to express it) *concatenated* and *associated* ideas. To explain. When the poet says of the moon

——— “ she guides

Her pearly bark through azure tides,”

he describes, in the whitish lustre of the moon, and in the blueness of the sky, *concatenated* ideas. The relative hue is a perpetual fact of nature. Again, if a shriek of woe has been uttered which awakens pity, the half closure of the eyelids, the gush of tears, the heaving of the nostrils, and the consequent curl of the lip-corners, are *concatenated* effects; and so are, consequently, the ideas which depict them. No habits of mind can be formed which would alter the impression of the surface of nature, or of the passions of man. On the contrary, if we look at a column having a Doric capital, and expect it to measure six diameters in height; if we look at a column having an Ionic capital, and expect it to measure seven diameters; or at one having a Corinthian capital, and expect it

it to measure eight diameters; these ideas of beautiful proportion are only *associated*. If celebrated artists, in those stately buildings that are within reach of our admiration, had employed slenderer dimensions, habits of the eye might have been formed which would have attached to the antique established proportions an idea of clumsiness, and to slim Gothic proportions an idea of superior beauty. Hence we draw this important inference, that beauty founded on *concatenated* ideas is immutable, but that all beauty founded only on *associated* ideas is mutable, conventional, arbitrary, accidental. Here we agree with Cordier de Launay, whose essay on the beautiful was noticed in the Appendix to our lxxviii vol. p. 498.

Of the second part, the first chapter displays two charts or tables exhibiting the parallelism and difference between the corresponding genera of beauties and deformities. An excessive use of technical phraseology detracts from the elegance of this very systematic analysis.—The second chapter inquires whether the association of ideas be arbitrary, and collects a vast number of curious particulars concerning the variations of human opinion as to the beautiful. The notes attached are peculiarly rich in scarce facts.—Chapter iii. attempts to draw a line between universal and casual association. What the fair author calls *universal association*, we should, as already stated, prefer to call *concatenation*. There is in this case *no* association: to associate is to bring into company that which was before separate: but concatenated ideas never were and never will be severed. Mr. Locke, in his thirtieth chapter of the second book, proposes a division of ideas into *real* and *fantastical*; which division in fact aims at the very distinction under contemplation. His *real* ideas are those which have archetypes in nature; his *fantastical* ideas are those which are formed by internal association; and, in the ensuing thirty-third chapter, he very properly confines the term *association* to the description of fantastical ideas. Hartley, by a pernicious abuse of language, has applied the term association to all conjunctions of ideas whatsoever; and, as his followers are numerous among our popular writers, an unintelligible metaphysical jargon has been introduced, in which opposite phenomena are alike explained by the magical word *association*. Association becomes door-keeper in the temple of Thought, and is made equally to usher us up the stair-case of Reason and into the labyrinth of Madness.

Chapter iv. attempts farther classifications, and treats concerning works of universal and permanent celebrity, and works of transient and local celebrity. Extensive intercourse,  
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and comprehensive familiarity, with the higher works of art, are justly considered as forming the surest basis of a sound taste.

The fifth chapter, which we will extract at length, decides for the term *inherent associations*, as best adapted to define those ideas that have entire archetypes in nature. Cordier de Launay makes his division into ideas of *imitation* and ideas of *composition*; putting Apollo in the first, and Pegasus in the second class.

‘ We will conclude this part of our subject by a brief recapitulation, and by a few observations, which may be properly considered as introductory to the theory which it is the object of this work to establish, and to which the preceding parts have been only preparatory.

‘ And, first,

‘ The constituent principles of beauty and deformity are expressed by that modification of sensible objects, which has been associated with the principles of that peculiar genus of beauty or deformity.

‘ But sensible objects are only beautiful or deformed from their association with certain internal feelings, or moral, agreeable, or disagreeable affections.

‘ These associations, it appears, may have been originally established on very different principles.

‘ Some may have been established by a real and necessary, or, to speak more accurately, a constant and undeviating association with their object: these we term *INHERENT* associations; and these associations being matter of notoriety to all, they form the universal tastes on which all men agree, and they form the basis of those works of taste which attain permanent celebrity.

‘ Other associations have been impressed by a casual or adventitious coincidence. By causes operating regularly within a certain sphere, or for a certain period, producing partial associations; or else they are only fortuitous and incidental, owing to casual individual impression, and have no necessary association, nor any regular limited association with their object. Both these are termed *CASUAL* associations, in contradistinction to *INHERENT* or necessary ones. But the first species, whose association, though not necessary or universal, is yet regular within a limited sphere, becomes the foundation of those peculiar tastes which identify and give distinct personality to nations, sects, and parties; and they form the basis of all those agreeable and brilliant works of fancy, which describe manners, &c.; and which, though they only obtain a local and temporary currency, give a rich variety and interest to general literature. They might be termed the vivid and gay annuals, with which the muse enlivens the perennial and ever verdant bays which flourish on Mount Parnassus. The second species, whose associations are neither necessary nor regular, but solely incidental and personal, can never be selected as the basis of works of taste.

‘ Now,

‘ Now, as inherent associations depend upon fixed and established principles, and as casual ones are not only limited in their operations, but fortuitous in their formation, it follows, that it is the former class only which can ever become the legitimate object of inquiry in any work on the subject of taste; for it is obvious, that it would be utterly impossible to trace every fortuitous and incidental association, which the infinitely varied combination of circumstances in human life may occasion.

‘ The object, then, of the following work upon the classification of beauty and deformity, or the regular associations of external objects with agreeable or disagreeable affections, is necessarily restricted to the analysis of the grand class of **INHERENT ASSOCIATION**.

‘ Its object is to trace those radical and permanent laws of association, by which, in every climate, age, or nation, the very same genus of perception is uniformly associated with the same genus of feeling, and universally ascribed to the same genus of beauty and deformity.

‘ Now inherent associations respect two main and distinct orders of subject matter.

‘ The first includes the face of inanimate nature; the last, that of animated nature.

‘ The first, composed of brute matter, is inert, and incapable of action, but by the application of an external agent. But it is susceptible of a great variety of mechanical conformations, which will give it different capacities for action on the application of such agents.

‘ The second, composed of matter connected with an animated soul, is capable of beginning motion, and may be considered as a machine, which has constantly resident within it the agent inspiring its operations. This species is susceptible of volition, of moral agency, and of moral accountability; but then that agency is tinged by the physical conformation of the body in which the immaterial soul is resident.

‘ Hence inherent associations may be divided into two main orders.

‘ The first regards the expression of which inanimate nature is susceptible, or, in other words, it appreciates its capacities of *uses*.

‘ The second regards the expression which inspires animated nature, or, in other words, appreciates the capacities of *character*.

‘ Both orders are subject to fixed, established laws.

‘ Both afford associations uniformly to be understood in every nation and language; but both afford associations entirely distinct in their nature, and of a wholly different kind.

‘ For although both animate and inanimate nature so far agree, as to be both susceptible of the expression of sublimity, elegance, sprightliness, &c., yet, in the case of inanimate nature, the expression will chiefly depend upon those mechanical principles which indicate strength or weakness, or upon the vividness or dul-

ness which occasion forcible or languid correspondent perceptions, either strongly or feebly affecting us as sentient beings.

But in the case of animated nature, in addition to the mechanical material expression indicating the strength or weakness of the machine, are superadded those expressions which belong to animal, to rational, and to moral expression.

Thus the first order becomes the foundation of general taste; the second constitutes the basis of the Physiognomonic science.

In the first case, we have only the capability of the machine to consider; in the second case, we have not only the capabilities of the machine to estimate, but we have to contemplate it as joined to the inspiring agent that sets it in motion, and calculate the complex combinations resulting from the connexion between them.

Thus the man of taste may be termed the Physiognomist of nature; and the Physiognomist may be termed the man of cultivated taste, applied to human expression.

The object of the succeeding pages is confined solely to the first order of inherent expression; or to an analysis of those laws of the regular associations of external perceptions, which constitute beauty and deformity throughout the whole face of nature, independently of the peculiarities imparted by the inspiration and combination of the vital principle.

We use this circumlocution, instead of saying, that we confine this inquiry to inanimate nature, because in truth many of the exemplifications will be adduced from attitudes, countenances, and other Physiognomonic expressions. But then, though taken from the human subject, they will be confined, if I may so say, to the mechanical expression of which the form of man is susceptible in common with any other material object, and not from that class of expression which is peculiar to him as an animated, rational, or moral being.

The first portion of this work, the reader will recollect, was devoted to the discrimination of the principle of beauty and deformity in general, and of the various genera of beauty and deformity in particular.

The next, which we now conclude, has been employed in investigating the various classes of association, by which external objects are connected with our agreeable or disagreeable affections.

The succeeding portion of this work will be devoted to the discrimination of the various genera of perceptions with which each individual genus of beauty or deformity is inherently associated throughout the five senses. The perfect senses of vision and hearing, the distinctively perfect human sense of touch, and the imperfect, or inferior and animal senses of taste and smell.

We shall endeavour not only to point out what these associations are, but likewise to shew the grounds on which they are necessarily founded; and, lastly, we shall attempt, by copious examples, both from the works of nature and of art, to prove that these associations do actually exist.

'The fourth and last part of this work will treat of the farther modifications, of which each genus of beauty and deformity is susceptible from the application of artificial culture; and the work will be concluded by a few rules and observations on the principles which should direct their application to works of nature and art.'

This chapter affords not only a favourable specimen of the author's style, but a neat analysis of the entire work, and will give a better notion of its nature and drift than any other equally short subdivision.

Part iii. of the work, as it is here termed, is in fact a succession of chapters; illustrating, under heads intitled after the five senses, the phenomena which they offer in connection with the main inquiry here pursued.—An agreeable and variegated appendix, containing thirty-eight plates differently stained, accompanied by the requisite verbal explanations and illustrations, terminates the volume.

"In beauty, faults conspicuous grow;  
The smallest speck is seen on snow;"

and what are the specks which we see here, and are going with pitiless wand to indicate? Several incidental repetitions, which needlessly prolong the text;—and an excessive fondness for classification and subdivision:—every trunk has its boughs, every bough has its branches, every branch has its twigs, and every twig has its flower-stalks:—but we must acknowledge that, at the end of each, many pleasing blossoms and rare exotics wave o'er the path. Perhaps, too, in the metaphysical part, something more of precision was attainable: but on this head we have sufficiently intimated our opinion already in the progress of our analysis.

ART. XI. *The Circle of the Mechanical Arts*; containing Practical Treatises on the various Manual Arts, Trades, and Manufactures. By Thomas Martin, Civil Engineer. Assisted by eminent Professional Mechanics and Manufacturers. Illustrated by numerous Engravings. Second Edition. 4to. pp. 616. 2l. Boards. Rees. 1815.

ARRANGING his materials in the manner of a dictionary, Mr. Martin here treats at considerable length of nearly seventy different arts, trades, and manufactures; including in particular all those which relate to building, as *Carpentry, Planing, Bricklaying, Brickmaking, Slating, Plaistering, Masonry, &c.* Others, connected with domestic economy, as *Brewing and Baking*, are also introduced in their alphabetical order. Besides these, we have treatises on *Dying, Hat-making, Glass-making,*



*making, Pottery, Porcelain, Soap-making, Tanning, Distillation, &c.*

‘Of the manufactures carried on to a vast extent in several of the large towns in the northern parts of England, as Manchester, Sheffield, and Birmingham, the reader may be referred to *Cotton-manufacture* and *Weaving*; *Button-making*, and *Cutlery*; to the manufacture of *Files* and *Nails*, and to *Wire-drawing*. To these may be added, the manufacture of *Guns* and *Shot*, which trades are carried on upon an extensive scale at Birmingham, though the best warranted guns are said to be the production of London workmen, to one of whom, eminent in his profession, the editor, as has been acknowledged in the article, is indebted for the facts contained in his account of the business.

‘Ship-building was reckoned too extensive an article for a work to be comprised in a single volume, and has been omitted; nevertheless, the manufacture of *Blocks* and *Ropes*, connected with it, has been rather fully treated of.

‘The trades, on which the literature of the country depends, will be found in their respective places, as *Paper-making*; *Printing*, by moveable letters, and on the stereotype plan; and *Book-binding*: to these may be added another branch of business, not indeed connected with books, but of which paper is the staple commodity, viz. *Staining of Paper*, chiefly used in the decoration of our apartments. Hence we have been led to treat of other branches of business not absolutely necessary to the convenience of life, but which are found in every stage of improved society, such are *Coach-making*, with which is allied the *Wheelwright*; *Enamelling*; *Carving*, and *Gilding*; *Gold-beating*; *Japanning*; *Engraving*, and the *Staining of Glass*, found under the articles *Glass* and *Glazing*.

‘To the public it was a matter of importance that a full article should be given on *Watch* and *Clock-making*; this has been done, including a description of all the tools used in the art, and of the facts which led to the invention, and of the principles on which these useful instruments depend.’

If to the above we add the articles *Engineering*, *Mining*, and *Founding*, we shall have enumerated the most important contents of the volume; and it will remain for us to offer a few observations as to the execution of the design.

It must be remembered that the author professes only to give practical treatises on the several subjects, and that he does not pretend to examine them theoretically; yet we must think that many of his articles might have been rendered considerably more interesting by combining a little of the theory with his practical explanation. The article *Bridges* is very defective in this respect; every thing that can be said to refer to fundamental principles being dispatched in less than a page, and all the rest relating to practical operations. The  
article

article *Carpenitry* is the most extended, and we believe we may say the best executed of any in the volume: that part of it, in particular, which relates to the strength and stress of materials, is given at considerable length, and includes an account of most of the experiments that have been instituted in order to reduce the subject to mathematical and uniform principles. These experiments have been made principally by Muschenbroek, Emerson, Parent, Gauthey, Buffon, Du Hamel, &c., many of them with different views, and therefore not comparable with each other; some, however, are of the same kind: but the results of them unfortunately have not that coincidence which is necessary for establishing the theory on any permanent mathematical basis. The experiments of Du Hamel are very curious, and in direct contradiction to the hypothesis on which mathematicians have commonly conducted their investigations; though it does not appear that any very marked difference prevails in the results.

‘ Du Hamel took 16 bars of willow, 2 feet long, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch square, and after supporting them by props under the ends, he subjected them to the operation of weights suspended at the middle. Four of them were broken by weights of 40, 41, 47 and 52 pounds; the mean of which is 45 lbs. ( $46\frac{1}{2}$ .) He then cut through one-third of four of them, on the upper side, and filled up each cut, with a thin piece of harder wood stuck in tolerably tight. These several pieces were then broken by weights of 48, 54, 50 and 52 pounds; the mean of which is 51 lbs. Four others were then cut through one half, and broken by 47, 49, 50 and 56 lbs; the mean of which is 48 lbs. (52.) The other four were cut through two-thirds, and their mean strength was 42 lbs.

‘ At another time Du Hamel took six battens of willow 36 inches long, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  square; after suitable experiments, he found that they were broken by 525 pounds at a medium.

‘ Six bars were next cut through one-third, and each cut was filled with a wedge of hard wood stuck in with a little force, these were broken by 551 pounds on the average.

‘ Six other bars were broken by 542 lbs on the medium, when cut half through, and the cuts were filled up in a similar manner.

‘ Six other bars were cut three-fourths through, and broken by the pressure of 530 pounds on a medium.

‘ A batten was cut three-fourths through, and loaded until nearly broken, it was then unloaded, and a thicker wedge was introduced tightly into the cut, so as to straighten the batten, by filling up the space left by the compression of the wood, when the batten was broken by 577 pounds.

‘ From these experiments we may perceive that more than two-thirds of the thickness, we may, perhaps, with safety say nearly three-fourths contributed nothing to the strength.’

These experiments are very remarkable, and if pursued they might probably lead to some decisive conclusions respecting the effect of the cohesion of fibres differently situated with regard to the fulcrum about which the fracture is formed. At all events, they prove very satisfactorily that the hypothesis, which makes each fibre to act with a force proportional to its distance from that fulcrum, is erroneous; although it appears that the conclusions deduced from it, viz. that the strength is as the area of the section into the depth of the centre of gravity, is nearly correct: but, if so, the author is wrong in what he says relative to a triangular prism having one end fixed in a wall, which he states to be *three times* stronger with its base downwards than when its vertex is so placed. We suspect, however, that this is merely a slip of the pen, and that it should have been only *twice*; and we suspect also a similar error at page 176., in the author's illustration of the diminution of strength by boring a solid cylinder in the direction of its axis. — Altogether, this article, notwithstanding it displays little taste in the arrangement, and exhibits some errors both of the pen and the press, may be advantageously consulted for many practical operations and results.

The next article to which we shall refer is *Engineering*, which the compiler observes has been almost entirely overlooked in our Encyclopedias, and which he has therefore endeavoured to supply: — but, if we mistake not, much of what is here given may be traced to articles bearing other names in those works to which he alludes, such as *Canal, Lock, Dock, Roads, &c.*; and therefore the merit of collecting these under one general head, *Engineering*, is not so great as Mr. Martin seems to imagine. Still, if this article has little to claim with regard to originality, it certainly gives a pleasant history of the progress of those great works which are and will continue to be the glory of the present age. In speaking of the construction and formation of Docks, the writer says:

‘ Docks, from at first being only a simple contrivance at arsenals for the purpose of building or repairing a single ship, have extended themselves to a magnitude in capacity competent to contain whole fleets. The splendour of the docks created in London, and at many of the outports, are a monument which excel the famous port of Pireus in Greece, or Alexandria, in Egypt, as much or more than we have excelled the Greeks and Romans in all the facilities to navigation, and the grandeur of our naval architecture. The Greeks and Romans no doubt have far surpassed us in all the elegancies of taste and invention in the fine arts: in these arts they

they have combined and given form to matter, which could have resulted only from a higher degree of feeling, united to juster notions of nature, than the coldness of our climate and habits can perceive, or hardly give power to copy. But if we are behind in the fine arts, which, as mere copyists, we must be contented to be: in supplying all manner of facilities to commerce, (in which we excel all nations, ancient and modern,) in erecting the immense docks and warehouses inland, which we have done to receive and house safely the produce of the world, and to an extent adequate for that purpose: we have formed a monument at once of our genius, wealth, and skill, which will be as famous in the page of science as the monuments of Athens and Rome are now in the volume of the arts.'

This is one of the best written passages in the article, the author being by no means happy in the combination of words. Thus, in the beginning of the paper, he says, '*Engineer, civil*, in contradistinction to the same *profession* attendant on military works, is a person of considerable importance in society; his *employ embraces pre-eminently* canals, and their attendants, reservoirs, locks,' &c. In speaking of the Eddystone lighthouse, he observes: "The form of such buildings has involved considerable intricacy of mathematical investigation; Lagrange has calculated that a cylinder is the strongest form in resisting flexure, which is contrary to the known fact, and could only be deduced from the intricacy of the investigation." In another place, he remarks: 'Hence cast-iron rail-roads became a second desideratum to canals, *excepting only that the invention is due to Englishmen.*' In the two former cases, we can guess at the author's meaning, but the latter sentence is to us totally inexplicable.

*Masonry, Mining, and Watch and Clock-making*, are rather long articles, and tolerably executed; at least, as far as practical information is concerned.

We shall now bestow a few observations on the author's Appendix on Practical Geometry, with which he has closed his volume, and we must conclude this article. Here, again, we meet with many of those unfortunate explanations from which it is impossible that a student or a novice can gain any correct information; and, which is still worse, they are sometimes calculated to make an erroneous impression. Thus: 'A rhombus has all its sides equal:' ergo, a square is a rhombus. — 'A rhomboid has its opposite sides equal:' — ergo, a rectangle is a rhomboid. — Again; 'a rhomboid is an oblique prism, whose bases are parallelograms:' — therefore, a rhomboid is both a surface and a solid. — 'A tangent is a straight line drawn so as just to touch against a circle.'

In

In defining the conic sections, an hyperbola is said to be formed by a section parallel to the axis; from which an uninstructed reader would infer that this figure could be made by no other position of the cutting plane. The definitions of the expressions *rectangle under two lines*, *to inscribe*, *to circumscribe*, &c., are of the same kind: but we have quoted enough to shew that science is not the author's *forte*; nor does he, indeed, assume any scientific pretensions.

The title-page of this volume calls it a second edition, and is dated in 1815; whereas the date of the preface is 1813; while, from references made in the course of the work to publications going forwards at the time of printing the several articles, as also from other circumstances, it is obvious that the volume has not been a second time to the press since 1813; and we do not know that it had previously appeared at a more distant period. We have heard of works that have passed immediately from the *first* or *second* edition into the *fifth*; and of others that have been republished under a new title without even entering the second: but these are paltry deceptions on inexperienced readers, disreputable both to authors and publishers.

ART. XII. *An Easy Introduction to the Mathematics*; in which the Theory and Practice are laid down and familiarly explained. To each Subject are prefixed, a brief popular History of its Rise and Progress, concise Memoirs of noted Mathematical Authors ancient and modern, and some Account of their Works. The whole forming a complete and easy System of Elementary Instruction in the leading Branches of the Mathematics; designed to furnish Students with the Means of acquiring considerable Proficiency, without the Necessity of verbal Assistance. Adapted to the Use of Schools, junior Students at the Universities, and private Learners, especially those who study without a Tutor. By Charles Butler. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

OUR introductory books on arithmetic, and all the elementary branches of mathematics, are perpetually increasing in number, and already we have many more than are really useful. An author, therefore, ought to have some substantial reason to offer in justification of himself when he adds a farther increase to the already over-stocked market of elementary mathematical treatises. Accordingly, this part of the subject is the first which the present author undertakes to discuss in his preface; and, if he has not proved that his work was absolutely necessary, he has at least shewn that it is  
not

not devoid of utility, while we must admit that its mode of arrangement possesses a certain degree of novelty, if not of originality. It appears to have been compiled with a considerable share of care and labour, and the *first volume* with judgment. It is also printed in a form and with a type that comprise a large portion of matter in a small compass; and it is certainly not ill adapted to the principal purpose which the author intended it to answer, viz. to assist the pupil who is studying without the aid of a master. Its contents are various, and its notes and illustrations very numerous. Scarcely any name of eminence occurs in the text unattended by a short biographical note at the foot of the page, pointing out to the reader the most important particulars relative to the author in question; such as his inventions, discoveries, improvements, writings, &c.; and most of the principal rules, and methods of solution, as they arise, are referred to their original authors with more minuteness than could with propriety be introduced into the historical sketches which precede the several subjects of arithmetic, algebra, logarithms, geometry, trigonometry, and the conic sections.

The contents of the several parts of Vol. i. are thus enumerated by the author:

‘ Part I. begins with an Historical Account of Arithmetic, explaining, to a considerable extent, the nature and construction of numbers, and proceeds by laying down in a plain and simple manner, what are usually called the four fundamental rules: next follow in order, Reduction, the Compound Rules, Proportion Direct, Inverse, and Compound; the Rules of Practice, the theory and practice of Fractional Arithmetic, Vulgar, Decimal, and Duodecimal; Involution, Evolution, and Progression, both Arithmetical and Geometrical; the whole demonstrated, exemplified, and explained; and as simplicity and clearness were always the objects aimed at, it is hoped no obstacle will be found in the learner’s way which may not easily be surmounted. Under these heads, which comprise the whole of Elementary Arithmetic, is given a great number of particular rules and observations, not to be found in any other work, but which are necessary, in order fully to explain the theory, and facilitate the practice of numbers. Besides the examples fully wrought out and explained, several others are introduced under each rule, with their answers only, and a few are given without answers. Part II. contains an Historical Account of Logarithms, the theory and practice of Logarithmical Arithmetic, with numerous examples, problems, and explanations. Part III. contains the History of Algebra, and its fundamental rules; Rules for solving Simple and Quadratic Equations, in which one, two, three, or more unknown quantities are included; and, lastly, a collection of Problems, teaching the application of Simple and Quadratic Equations, in a great variety of ways;

ways; the whole accompanied with notes and easy explanations as above. This completes the first volume.'

Volume II. commences with what the author calls *literal algebra*, general theorems and formulæ, and investigations relating to the doctrine of Ratios, Proportions, Permutations, Combinations, and the Properties of Numbers.

'Part V. explains the nature and theory of Equations in general, their Composition, Depression, Transformation, and Resolution, according to the methods of Newton, Cardan, Euler, Simson, Des Cartes, and others. Various methods of Approximation as laid down by Simson, Raphson, Hutton, Bernoulli, &c. the Solution of Exponential Equations, and Problems for exercise. Part VI. explains the nature and method of resolving indeterminate Problems, both simple and Diophantine.'

Part VII. treats of the Binomial Theorem, the Doctrine of Series, the Analytical Theory of Logarithms, &c. Part VIII. treats of Geometry; IX. of Trigonometry; and X. of the Conic Sections.

Such is the plan of the work which Mr. Butler has presented to the British mathematical student. With regard to the execution of it, we have already stated that it seems to have been the result of considerable labour and research, and is throughout the first volume creditable to the author: but at this point our approbation of the performance must cease. The second volume is certainly very defective, at least in all the analytical parts of it; almost every subject being treated after the manner of Ward, Emerson, and other writers of about the same period, while scarcely a word is any where said of the more recent improvements. This defect is particularly obvious in those parts which relate to the reduction of Ratios, the Properties of Numbers, the Indeterminate and Diophantine Algebra, and in fact throughout the first two hundred pages of this volume.

The chapter on Numbers seems to have been principally drawn from an old edition of Bonycastle's Arithmetic: but all the more important numerical theorems which we owe to Fermat, Euler, Waring, Lagrange, &c. are totally omitted; which certainly could never have happened if the author had been aware of the distinct treatises on this subject by Gauss and Legendre. The same defect, and obviously arising from the same cause, occurs in his manner of treating the doctrine of Indeterminate Equations and Diophantine Problems. The former is wholly divested of its natural foundation, viz. the theory of Continued Fractions; and the nature and generation of equations are in like manner treated according to the method of

of Harriot : none of the objections that have been made to it by modern authors being pointed out to the reader, nor any sources of information but such as are obsolete and useless. These are undoubtedly serious deductions from the general merit of the publication : which, notwithstanding, will be found to contain a great portion of useful information, not only scientific but historical and biographical ; though the reader must not expect it to reach much beyond the middle of the last century.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JULY, 1816.

### POETRY, &c.

Art. 13. *Athaliah* : a sacred Drama, translated from the French of Racine. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Hamilton. 1815.

In compliance with the wish expressed by the translator in the preface, we have read this drama nearly line for line with the original ; and we think not only that the meaning is faithfully rendered, but that the writer has skilfully avoided the common fault of amplifying and lengthening the author's passages. The spirit of Racine's composition has perhaps been more successfully imitated than its harmony : but, on the whole, this is a respectable translation, and the best which we have seen of *Athalie*.

Art. 14. *Morni* ; an Irish Bardic Story, in Three Cantos : and the Pilgrim of Carmel ; an Eastern Tale, in One Canto. By Richard Benson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 208. Printed at Newry for Gilbert and Hodges, &c. Dublin. 1815.

The dedication of this poem, and some concluding stanzas, are in a style superior to the "body of the work." Whether it be easier to write to a beloved and affectionate sister, (as Mr. Benson describes his *Moina*,) than to celebrate imaginary beings, or even the most amiable heroes and heroines of history,—or whether the genius of this author be more adapted to short flights than to protracted excursions,—we know not ; but, in our opinion, the relative merits of the compositions in question are such as we have described.

\* To thee O Moina ! dearest sister, friend,  
 Beguiler sweet of many a toilsome day  
 Of mental pain, who oft time didst extend  
 Bright Fancy's wing, perchance to chase away  
 The lowering shades of loathed misery ;  
 Or madest my bosom's grief so much thine own,  
 For self I ceased to weep and mourned for thee ;  
 And as thou echoedst back the heart's deep groan,  
 Deceived, almost could deem I wept for thee alone !

This



This is all very natural, and pleasing in idea; and the final lines, 'to the Memory of a departed Friend,' are as good in their own style as the foregoing extract from the dedication:

- ' Weep, when suff'ring Friendship calls!  
Weep, for joys that time is stealing!  
Oh! when youthful Beauty falls,  
Tears have lost their power of healing!
- ' Reflection to all other stings,  
Yields a balm each care relieving:  
Here alone fond mem'ry brings  
Rapture vanished, past retrieving.'

Why are we not able to give more praise, and praise more widely diffused, to this volume? The author must answer the question;—and, while we really regret that we cannot cheer his visual darkness\* with any prospective hopes of Miltonic illumination, we are determined not to inflict any farther pain than our critical duty renders necessary. We therefore here close our notice of 'Morni,' and 'The Pilgrim of Carmel.'

Art. 15. *The Days of Harold*, a Metrical Tale. By John Benjamin Rogers. 8vo. pp. 404. 12s. Boards. Newman. 1816.

It is sometimes requisite to dismiss all jesting, and seriously and plainly to expostulate with an author for the abuse of the press of which he has been guilty. We think that the present is an occasion of the kind in question. Here is a volume of four hundred pages, handsomely printed, and well sent out into the world altogether, without a shadow of merit in the poetry, original or borrowed, to instruct or to amuse its readers, or to recompense them for the twelve shillings which it extravagantly calls on them to disburse. What would those readers pronounce on glancing at the opening lines?

- ' The keen autumnal breeze of *night*  
Subsiding at the peep of *night*,  
Had murmuring sigh'd itself to rest  
Upon the German Ocean's breast,  
As o'er the woods of Beverly  
Emerging from the eastern sea,  
The beams of morning seem'd to rise  
And pass along the glowing skies.'

We have little doubt, indeed, that an individual may be found, and perhaps more than one, who may conceive the following language to be equally energetic, correct, and poetical:

- ' Forgive me, Heav'n! if I aspire  
To hurl thy *retributive* fire,  
For thy decrees disdain to ask  
Such *supererogative* task;'

(P. 86.)

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\* We have been sorry to learn that this poet suffers together with "blind Thamyras, and Blind Masonides."

and some, perchance, may have candour (or rather indulgence) enough to discover a merit beyond the most common-place mediocrity in the subjoined passage :

‘ Oh that the Muse could half reveal  
The strong emotion that I feel,  
While my sad heart, with anguish keen,  
Revolves in thought that parting scene !  
Yet should angelic minstrels bring  
Celestial notes their grief to sing,  
None but a lover’s heart could know,  
In all its force, such poignant woe.  
Then fly the wretch who would conspire  
To quench love’s spark of heav’n-born fire,  
Whose power coercive would constrain  
Th’ immortal flame in sordid chain !  
Villain, avaunt ! whose felon art  
Would plunge in woe that tender heart,  
Which fondly on the soul reclin’d,  
That it to misery consign’d ;  
Far hence, ye ravishers, be driv’n,  
Chac’d by the frowns of angry Heaven,  
Who dare the precious gem destroy,  
Ye have not feelings to enjoy !’

With this sufficient extract, we shall close our observations on the text of this work ; in which, if we could record our detection of any other tolerable passages, we could also chronicle the author’s obtrusive and numerous *errata*, to an extent that would be neither profitable nor pleasing. — We turn to the notes, which in due proportion are affixed to each canto ; and here the author is much more at home. He is evidently an antiquary, and an English historical reader, of considerable respectability ; and we must be pained at inflicting censure on the unsuccessful attempts of such a person : but really the seductive facility, by which some modern writers have attained *the modern height* of poetical distinction, has beguiled so many well-meaning but ill-adapted followers into the same easy path, that it becomes a double duty to prevent our versification from being debased and our language from being farther corrupted by such injudicious imitations. The notes contain a modernization of a Saxon poem, if it can be so called, translated from an old French description of the amusements of King Arthur’s court ; and also some notices of the antient state of England and of London, which will be interesting to the antiquary.

Art. 16. *The Voluspa*; or Speech of the Prophetess ; with other Poems. By the Rev. J. Prowett. 12mo. pp. 111. Payne and Foss. 1816.

We are told that the former of these poems is extracted from the remains of the Runic mythology, as preserved by Olaus Wormius, Bartholinus, and others. The subject of the prophecy is the dissolution of the world, when *Lok*, the Evil Principle among the Scandinavians, with all “ *his monster progeny*,” consisting of the

the wulf Fenris, *Hela the Goddess of Death*, and the Great Serpent, who was supposed to wind himself round the earth, shall be hurled headlong from their present abode into the silent shades of everlasting misery. The general character of this composition, and of the minor poems which are included in the volume, consists in chaste simplicity and classical elegance. If, however, we are nowhere offended by any wide deviations from the principles of correct taste, in some instances the author's poetic fire appears to grow languid and feeble, and in others we observe a slight inattention to metrical cadence. The work appears to be the production of an enlightened mind and a classic imagination, but rather, if we may be allowed to guess, of a suitor to the Muses than a confirmed favourite.

## NOVELS.

Art. 17. *Le Ministre de Wakefield, &c.*; i.e. The Vicar of Wakefield, by Oliver Goldsmith. In French and English. Translated by Madame Despourin. 2 Vols. 12mo. Boards. Leigh, &c. 1816.

This is a faithful translation, and being, as we think, the only one in which the French and English are printed on opposite pages, it will be particularly useful to those who are studying the French language. — An edition is also published in French alone.

Art. 18. *Emma*. By the Author of "Pride and Prejudice," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Murray. 1816.

If this novel can scarcely be termed a composition, because it contains but one ingredient, *that one* is, however, of sterling worth; being a strain of genuine natural humour, such as is seldom found conjointly with the complete purity of images and ideas which is here conspicuous. The character of Mr. Woodhouse, with his 'habits of gentle selfishness,' is admirably drawn, and the dialogue is easy and lively. The fair reader may also glean by the way some useful hints against forming romantic schemes, or indulging a spirit of patronage in defiance of sober reason; and the work will probably become a favourite with all those who seek for harmless amusement, rather than deep pathos or appalling horrors, in works of fiction.

Art. 19. *St. Clyde*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Gale and Fenner. 1816.

For the last year or two, the novel-readers in this island have been indebted for much amusement to Scottish writers; and they have been so pleasantly initiated into the northern dialect by the perusal of "*Waverley*," "*Guy Mannering*," &c. that a moderate admixture of it in other tales proves attractive rather than alarming. The author of '*St. Clyde*,' however, has composed too palpable an imitation of those works; and he has exceeded the present licence for writing Scotch, since he not only makes almost all his characters speak unintelligibly, but allows himself to narrate in such language as they employ. For instances, he speaks, in Vol. ii. p. 32. of 'a wondrous pavement that stretched far beneath the

the *dolesome* deep; — ‘being now very old and *frail*, his suspicions were roused by observing some *corbies*,’ &c. — Vol. iii. p. 144. ‘*longsome* pleasure.’ — 264. ‘There was little fear of a disclosure from Charles’s being *transmewed* into, as Dr. Boston, professor and lecturer on botany, &c. &c.

The tale is, moreover, too much crowded with personages, and appears to be a hasty performance: yet the description in the first volume of a march of recruits is natural and somewhat affecting; the story is not without variety; and the writer seems to be well acquainted with the scenery and customs which he delineates.

Art. 20. *She would be a Heroine.* By Sophia Griffith. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

Some incidents and characters in this novel are too evidently borrowed from Miss Edgeworth’s “*Belinda*,” *Lady Georgiana*, who seems intended to be the most attractive personage, plays tricks which would be natural only in an ill educated school-girl; her husband and her friends connive at these follies with incredible supineness; and neither the dialogue nor the moral of the tale compensates for the glaring improbability of its outline.

We noticed also several errors in the grammar and language, of which the following may suffice as samples. — Vol. i. p. 191. ‘His garments smelt of *altar* de rose.’ — P. 224. ‘extravacated wind.’ — 229. ‘Carmine is a preparation of cochineal in nitrous acid, with some other ingredients which is kept a profound secret.’ — 245. ‘Whose voice Bess instantly recognized to be that of Sir Thomas *Fletcher’s*.’ Vol. ii. p. 98. ‘Even common sense thou *puts* to flight,’ &c.

We have long been told that

“ Authors, before they write, should read:”

but many of our novel-writers offend so glaringly against even common correctness of diction, that we should advise them, “before they write,” to go to school and learn their Grammar.

#### EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 21. *Travels at Home, and Voyages by the Fire-side; for the Instruction and Entertainment of Young Persons.* 12mo. 5 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

The first and second volumes of this interesting little work have already been noticed by us; (see Rev. Vol. lxxiii. N.S. p. 437.) and we are happy to observe that the author appears in many instances to have profited by the remarks which we had before occasion to offer. It would, however, have been much more agreeable to us if he had made a general application of the partial hints which then fell from us, with regard to style and language; and we will venture also to say that it would have proved somewhat more creditable to himself. As these volumes now come before us in a second edition, and augmented by three that are new, our observations on what appear to us their principal defects must be sufficiently minute.

REV. JULY, 1816.

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A great fault in this author's writing is his language: which, we regret to observe, frequently deviates most widely from our ideas of correct English. Strong marks of *provincialism*, too, are continually apparent: nay we have been occasionally so much startled by the singularity of the dialect, as for a moment to have suspected the author to be of trans-Atlantic origin, and sometimes have even doubted whether the work was not a translation rather than an original performance.

We have noted down some few examples. At p. 36. vol. i. 'Their foolish threat *succeeded to lead* the English into a more foolish alarm.' 'A seaman may *go on his sea slang* a long while.' 'In event, the city was reduced by the *Galtic* forces.' A correct English writer would have thus arranged this last sentence; 'The city was *eventually* reduced by the *French* forces.' 'Courage is very necessary and very proper *on occasion*.' 'In event' and 'on occasion' remind us of the French *en effet*, and *sur l'occasion*; as *succeeded to lead* reminds us of *réussir à, parvenir à, &c.* Again: 'We do not much *fancy* the people of Lisbon' is not particularly elegant; and 'such a poor slave as a *Portugal-man*' is decidedly wrong. '*Shrank*' occurs at p. 151. vol. i. instead of '*shrunk*;' and '*slaver*' in vol. iv. instead of dealer or trader in slaves. Speaking of the philosophers of Greece, the author says, 'we can scarcely name the places rendered celebrated *by their figures* in antiquity.' What does this mean? 'If we should *come to travel* in England' should have been written, 'if we should hereafter travel in England.' '*Strain my cunning*,' and '*miss of the prize*,' we cannot consider as blameless phraseology.

These, and some others that we might have enumerated, are instances of inaccuracy in point of language. Incorrect reasoning will be our next theme of animadversion. Alluding to England, the author says; 'It can never be ruined by its own degenerate sons, for such sons it can never produce.' This, we fear, is much too delightful doctrine to be strictly true; and we are rather disposed to deny both the premises and the inference. We apprehend that any country whatever, and England among the rest, may be ruined by its own degenerate sons: that any country whatever may produce degenerate sons; and that England may produce, often has produced, does still produce, and probably will continue unto the end of the world to produce, degenerate sons. P. 196. vol. i.; 'It is a maxim, held sacred in the law of nations, that a successful usurpation removes all defect of title.' If this be true, Cromwell was the legitimate ruler of England, and Napoleon of France.—We coincide not with the idea that Gibraltar was '*an unfortunate conquest*,' and that 'it would be happy if our government could be well rid' of it. At p. 150. vol. ii. Grocius and Puffendorf, who were both Saxons, are noticed among the Dutch literati. A singular instance of *untechnical* language occurs at p. 140. vol. iv. 'King John I. being at war with the King of Morocco, sent out a fleet with a view to make an attack on that country *from behind*.' We have also frequently found ourselves at war with the author in point of taste:—he is too fond of  
*declamation,*

declamation, and of long-winded inflated sentences on his favourite topics; and he repeats the same ideas and sentiments again and again:— We entirely agree with him in his approbation of Mr. Clarkson, but we must think that every purpose of panegyric might have been answered by less verbosity, and certainly correct taste would have been better consulted. He moreover outsteps the bounds of nature, when he makes the father remark to his children; ‘ my children, you will never be truly worthy to be admitted to the acquaintance of a man, who has done so much to rescue three quarters of the world from degradation *into comparative dignity and virtue.*’ To say nothing of *rescuing* a man from one state *into another*, it is unnatural and disheartening for a parent to tell his children that they will never be worthy of the acquaintance of *any* human being: parental partiality would surely rather have dictated the hope that the children *might possibly* hereafter become worthy of Mr. Clarkson’s acquaintance, if they sedulously imitated his virtues.

Such are some of the principal defects in this production, with which on the whole we have been considerably pleased, and not a little disappointed. The plan, to whomsoever the merit of inventing it may belong, is very good; and we must do the author the justice to say that, with all its faults, the work contains much useful information in a pleasing and interesting shape. Indeed its merits in this respect, to which we are very ready to do ample justice, have perhaps made us the more fastidious in noticing its deficiencies: but we are willing to hope that the author, who has already paid attention to some of our former observations, will feel disposed to listen to us in the present instance. We advise him to let the whole *undergo a complete revision*; for we can assure him with truth that we have been very sparing in our censures, and have purposely omitted to notice many errors similar to those that we have pointed out.

Art. 22. *The Adopted Daughter*, a Tale for Young Persons. By Miss Sandham, Author of “ *The Twin Sisters*,” &c. &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Harris. 1815.

Although the construction of this tale merits less applause than we had the pleasure of awarding to Miss Sandham’s other publications, because the history of Anna’s adoption is somewhat romantic and improbable, yet the sentiments are excellent; and the book contains nothing which can make it ineligible for young readers.

Art. 23. *The Brothers*; or Consequences. A Story of what happens every Day, addressed to that most useful Part of the Community, the labouring Poor. By Mary Hays. Small 12mo. 2s. Button and Son. 1815.

The form of a drama is not judiciously given to this tale, in which the history of a man’s whole life and the events of many years are depicted: but the work is likely to be useful, its aim being to shew the imprudence of those marriages among the labouring classes, in which the lover is attracted rather by shewy than by sterling qualities, and in which no provision has been made for future or contingent expences.

- Art. 24. *The Flower-Basket. A Fairy Tale. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. half-bound. Longman and Co. 1816.*

An ingenious little fairy-tale, whence an useful moral may be deduced.

- Art. 25. *Buds of Genius; or some Account of the early Lives of celebrated Characters who were remarkable in their Childhood: intended as an Introduction to Biography. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1816.*

The above quaint title serves to announce a little book of considerable merit; in which authentic anecdotes respecting the childhood of various celebrated persons are related with conciseness and accuracy, while the remarks of some young people, who are supposed to hear the narration, give them additional zest and effect.—We have much pleasure in recommending this performance.

- Art. 26. *The Blind Farmer and his Children. By Mrs. Hofland. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Harris. 1816.*

Whatever sanction or discountenance might be given by our great agriculturists to the recommendation of small farms which is enforced in this tale, its reception from more youthful readers will probably be favourable, since it is in a certain degree both pleasing and pathetic. Some errors of language must nevertheless be noticed; as, page 50., 'they desired that it might be laid out in something that *her* and their father would like.' Page 85. 'Well, said Louisa, and between ladies, he was *right served*.' Page 86. 'Having *shook* hands with them,' &c. &c.

#### RELIGIOUS.

- Art. 27. *Moral Discourses, principally intended for Young People. By William Pitt Scargill. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Harvey.*

If this unassuming little performance contains nothing peculiarly brilliant, it cannot be said to be otherwise than creditable to the author; and if in some cases we have perceived rather too much verbosity and inflation of style, in many other instances correct taste and judgment appear to have been successfully consulted for the enforcement of moral obligation.

- Art. 28. *Two Assize Sermons, preached in the Cathedral Church at Worcester, &c. By the Rev. Luke Booker, LL.D. Vicar of Dudley. Second Edition. With an Appendix, containing the Prisoner's Prayer, and a Mirror for Magistrates. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.*

Both these discourses are highly creditable to the feelings as well as to the understanding of their author: equally tending to inculcate the necessity of fixed principles of religion as the basis of moral duty; and successfully demonstrating that man's hope and apprehension, as to what will become of him after death, are the strongest securities for the preservation of his integrity and uprightness in his present existence. Suitable panegyrics are bestowed on the wholesome restraint of that legal policy, which is at once the pride and the defence of our country; its chief object being

being not to inflict punishment on guilt, but to deter from the commission of it. A forcible parallel is drawn between the advantages of a wise and equitable system of human jurisprudence, and those which result from that all-perfect administration of justice and mercy, by which the Almighty upholds and regulates the moral order of the universe.

The Appendix contains a suitable prayer for a prisoner, during the time preceding or subsequent to his trial, followed by some excellent advice to Justices of the peace.

Art. 29. *A Series of Questions upon the Bible*, chiefly designed for the Use of Sunday-schools, with a separate Key of Reference, by the Rev. Edward Stanley, M. A. Rector of Alderley. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

Though this little work is principally intended for the use of Sunday-schools, it may perhaps be deemed worthy of attention by those who are desirous of making religion a constituent part, if not the chief feature, of a system of general education. The author is perfectly right with regard to the benefits of the interrogatory plan of instruction: since it is certainly calculated to fix on the memory those impressions which may be *acquired* by means of reading, but which, without such farther assistance, might very probably be soon *lost*. His plan, therefore, is to go through the whole volume of Scripture, chapter by chapter; and to propose a series of questions on the leading facts and circumstances detailed in each book, leaving the student to frame his own answer according to his ability and judgment: in which he is assisted by a general key of reference, directing him to the chapter in the Bible whence the question is taken.—Such a plan, it may be observed, can scarcely fail of success with regard to the historical parts of Scripture: but there are other portions of the sacred writings, in which we think its utility may be more questionable. With respect to the Psalms, for instance, we cannot but consider that the old method of recital from memory would be found by far the preferable mode of instruction. Poetical compositions, in order to be duly felt and appreciated, must be committed to memory *in toto*: at least, their principal beauties and most striking passages must be preserved *in their integrity*, or their force and effect will be in a great measure, if not entirely, destroyed. No judicious instructor, we imagine, who wished to make his reader acquainted with Virgil or Horace, would string together a set of questions relating to the historical facts or the didactic lessons of these authors: but he would explain their obscurities, elucidate their style, point out their beauties, and then require selections from them to be committed to memory. The same remark holds good with regard to the Psalms of David. For instance, that beautiful composition, the fifty-first, is acknowledged to be as a whole unrivalled in its kind: but how are the beauty and pathos of it lost by such an analysis as the following? ‘What should we pray God to create and renew in us? When God upholds us with his Spirit, what shall we be able to do with transgressors and sinners? With what sacrifices is God well-pleased?’ &c.



May not the same also be said of those portions of the prophecies in which the style is so peculiarly elevated, and the language highly figurative and poetical? As to the historical parts of the prophecies, also, we conceive that these require so vast a fund of previous knowledge, before they can be rendered intelligible, that we can scarcely imagine Mr. Stanley's system to be applicable here to any but very enlightened minds.

In imprinting on the memory, however, the leading facts both of the Old and the New Testament, the work will doubtless have its utility. We commend also the plan of leaving the learner himself to search for the solution of the question, since it teaches him to exercise his own judgment, and prevents the mere recital of a prescribed form of words. At the same time, this mode increases the responsibility of the teacher, and imposes on him a more arduous task. — Prefixed to each book, is a short notice of its contents, of its author, and of the period in which he lived. As the work is yet only in its infancy, we cannot but express our earnest hope that the author will be encouraged to proceed in his design, which has our sincere good-wishes.

#### POLITICS.

**Art. 30.** *The Speech of Pascoe Grenfell, Esq. in the House of Commons, 13th February, 1816, on certain Transactions subsisting betwixt the Public and the Bank of England. With an Appendix.* 8vo. pp. 120. 4s. 6d. Murray.

Those who have patience to study financial statements are doubtless already acquainted with the substance of this speech, from the report of it in the news-papers: but it is here printed at greater length, and with more accuracy. Its chief recommendation, however, consists in the tables and other documents that form the Appendix. They are partly specifications of the large balances of public money deposited at the Bank, partly extracts from the correspondence of ministers with the Bank-Directors, and partly passages from the evidence of witnesses examined before parliamentary committees. The speech, with these additions, makes an useful appendage to the collection of a grave student of finance: but the general reader will do well to give a preference to other topics, and keep at a wary distance from the subject which possesses so many charms in the eyes of some politicians.

**Art. 31.** *The Crisis; or a Letter to the Right Honourable the Chancellor of the Exchequer; stating the true Cause of the present alarming State of the Country, with a Remedy at once safe, easy, and efficacious: the whole deduced from unerring Principles.* 8vo. pp. 86. 3s. 6d. Hatchard. 1816.

Hapless indeed would be the situation of the members of our cabinet, were they doomed to wade through all the literary productions that are addressed to them! We have no reason for supposing, however, that they often attend to such advisers; and, though the writer of the tract before us has aimed at a double hold on ministers, his pamphlet being dedicated in the outset to Lord Liverpool, while the body of his reasoning is addressed to Mr. Vansittart,

start, we can by no means flatter him with the expectation of unusual success. 'Our present difficulties,' he says, 'are not the effect of our financial burdens, but of our inaptness to view common facts in their true and proper light.' The remedy which he proposes is nothing less than that of making the pound note a legal tender at the reduced value of *fourteen shillings*; a notion founded on the assumption that, at one particular time, our bank-paper had become depreciated to that extent. He would even go a step farther, and claim for the agriculturist an abatement of forty-five pounds in every hundred, on the plea that the loss sustained by him in capital since the peace gives him a just title to this sweeping indemnity.

Art. 32. *Thoughts on the Causes and Consequences of the present distressed State of agricultural Produce.* Addressed to the Consideration of those who have Property in the Funds. 8vo. 6d. Longman and Co. 1816.

The leading object of this little tract is to warn the stock-holders against considering the distress of the agricultural interest as a matter of indifference to them in a pecuniary point of view. 'Our land is the atlas which supports the world of our taxation; and where is the political Archimedes that can find another resting-place for the lever, by which it may be raised? The public creditor may continue for a short time, as at present, to absorb the *capital*, instead of receiving a proportion of the annual *income* of the country, but he can have no golden eggs when the bird that laid them is destroyed.'—The manner in which the fall of the value of corn reduces the produce of taxes is very clearly explained in pp. 9, 10. In his suggestions of a remedy, the author is evidently less luminous and satisfactory: but a potent deduction from our taxes by appropriating the sinking fund to our current expenditure is evidently in his contemplation. As a composition, this little essay has a mixed character, containing some irrelevant and even injudicious passages, united with occasional remarks (as in p. 13.) that would do credit to a deliberate and experienced investigator.

Art. 33. *An Address to the Honourable House of Commons of Great Britain and Ireland, on the State of the Nation.* By a Yorkshire Freeholder. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co. 1816.

This Yorkshire gentleman seems determined not to be outdone by any of his cotemporary writers in sturdy allegation or confident demand. Now that we are restored to a state of peace, he computes the labour of the men withdrawn from the military service, and employed in mines, fisheries, and manufactures, at the *moderate* sum of four pounds a-week; and, by way of setting in motion this great addition to the productive industry of the country, he proposes that Government should make extensive loans to country-bankers, and come forwards for their protection in all cases of an alarm or run: while our salvation, he says, will depend on our giving the same public protection to paper-currency in peace as in war. Such arguments evidently proceed on the notion that our distress consists merely in a want of the circulating medium; and,

as we are of opinion that many other matters are to be taken into consideration, we must decline any farther notice of the lucubrations of this northern politician.

Art. 34. *Speech of Henry Brougham, Esq. M. P., on the 9th of April, 1816; in the Committee of the whole House, on the State of the Agricultural Distresses.* 8vo. pp. 61. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

We need scarcely observe to the political reader that this discourse is equally remarkable for the compass of the information displayed, and for the calmness and moderation that pervade the whole. We see here no disposition to strain a particular argument, or to support a favourite theory; on the contrary, authorities on either side are quoted with respectful deference; while the orator takes, on several occasions, a line of reasoning materially different from that of the persons with whom he is in the habit of coinciding on other topics.

Mr. B. commences by explaining the unusual stimulus given to our manufactures, and consequently to our agriculture, by the acquisition of foreign colonies in the war of the French Revolution. This was followed by a farther premium to cultivation in the high prices consequent on the scarcities of 1795, 1799, and 1800; the operation of which took place in a variety of ways, and in none more effectually than in facilitating loans to farmers and small proprietors through the hands of country-bankers. The public, both on this and the other side of the Tweed, were long under the delusion that the new purchasers of land were the unincumbered proprietors of their splendid acquisitions; while, in fact, they seldom paid more than the partial sum necessary to render the estate a tolerable security to the mortgagee. What else than distress was to be expected from the fall in the price of corn that was consequent on a peace, and on a reduction in the quantity of bank-paper, particularly when the general distrust excited by repeated failures induced, and, in many cases, forced the mortgagees to foreclose their deeds and bring their property to sale? All this distress, moreover, took place under an enormous increase of taxation.

The latter half of the speech (after p. 40.) is given to the more doubtful topic of the means of affording relief. Mr. B. differs from several political economists with regard to the expediency of the corn-bill of the last year; being decidedly of opinion that nothing short of protection to the scale adopted (eighty shillings *per* quarter) could save the landed interest from almost universal ruin. He coincides, however, with all enlightened writers on the principles of commerce, in condemning Mr. Western's proposition of a bounty on the export of corn; a measure which could not be carried into effect without a great increase of taxation, and which would answer scarcely any other purpose than that of enabling foreigners to consume our corn cheaper than ourselves.—In adverting (pp. 50, 51.) to the often-agitated questions of tythes and poor-rates, he expresses a hope of suggesting, on a future day, a plan likely to be productive of considerable relief: but his expectation

pectation of direct assistance is founded on a partial appropriation of the sinking fund, and a consequent relinquishment of the taxes that press most on agriculture, such as those on leather and husbandry-horses; to which he would add the 'bad gains of the lottery,' and the most oppressive of the assessed taxes. He concludes by recommending to parliament, or rather to ministers, an active protection of the new branches of trade that are opened with Spanish America; a trade carried on at present to a considerable extent, but in little else than a contraband form, without the sanction of consuls or residents, either commercial or political.

Without attempting any farther summary of the great variety of topics introduced into this speech, we shall merely add that it gives by no means a discouraging picture of our national prospects; so that it has probably brought Mr. B. into favour with many who had become dissatisfied with the frequency of his opposition to ministers, and had adopted the ordinary (though by no means just) conclusion that such conduct implies a disposition to under-rate the power and resources of our country.

Art. 35. *Letters on the present State of the Agricultural Interest*, addressed to Charles Forbes, Esq. M.P. By the Rev. A. Crombie, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 86. Hunter.

Dr. Crombie formerly engaged our attention as a philologist, and now comes before us in a minor publication in the capacity of a political economist. He manifests a considerable acquaintance with the principles of that science; and the chief defect in his composition is the want of a clear and careful distribution of the materials. He adverts successively to the various causes of the great alteration that has occurred of late years in the condition of the agriculturists; particularly the unusually large crops of 1812, 1813, and 1815; the large importations in 1814; the cessation of government-purchases for the army and navy; and, finally, the reduction of the bank-issues. He combats with great propriety the proposition of a bounty on the export of corn; as well as the equally obnoxious project of a duty on the import of foreign wool. He next discusses the effect to be expected from a mitigation or repeal of direct taxes on agriculture, and explains in what way the benefit arising from that source is more likely to go to the landholder than to his tenant. Now the former, it must be confessed, have flourished so largely since the year 1792, as to have no particular claim on the indulgence of the mercantile and other branches of the community.

'While most other classes of the community were depressed, the land proprietor rose; his capital was improved, and his revenue increased. In evidence of this, we have only to compare the value and rent of land during the last twenty years with what they were at the commencement of the war. If he should now have his revenue reduced to the same amount as in 1792, his condition would not be worse than that of the national creditor who invested his money in the funds at that period.'

The

The remainder of the pamphlet consists of a recommendation of long leases; of the adoption of corn-rents, somewhat on the plan lately practised in the payment of clerical livings; and of a general reduction of rents in those counties, unfortunately too many, in which the land-holders have gone beyond all reasonable bounds in their bargains with their tenants. Farmers are, or rather were till lately, ill prepared to adopt the plan of regulating their rent, even to the extent of one half, by the price of corn; alleging that high prices occur only in the case of deficient crops, which would oblige them, as they apprehend, to pay a high rent in a bad season: but this might be obviated by adopting, as a standard, not any particular year, but an average of five years; and in fact their objections have, in several cases, been overcome. We have, indeed, little doubt of their giving way as soon as they shall be satisfied that the plan in question is not intended for their disadvantage.

Dr. C. concludes by advising a new modelling of the present mode of tything; an equalization of the poor's rates, so as to make the maintenance of the poor the duty of the whole community; and, finally, the repeal of the existing statute against usury. His observations on the last topic, brief as they are, bespeak a mind that has gone considerably into the subject; and they will be found perfectly to accord with the various arguments that we endeavoured to urge in treating this important and ill understood subject, in our report of Mr. Sugden's tract on redeemable annuities. (Rev. Vol. lxxi. N. S. p. 426.)

Art 36. *An Inquiry into the Cause of the Increase of Pauperism and Poor's Rates; with a Remedy for the same, and a Proposition for equalizing the Rates throughout England and Wales.* By William Clarkson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 77. Baldwin and Co. 1815.

The distress of the agricultural interest is now likely to make our legislators proceed to the adoption of various measures which ought to have engaged their attention long ago; — among others, to a new-modelling of the poor-rates, on the plan of equalizing them throughout the kingdom. Mr. Clarkson contributes his mite to this object, with very little skill as far as literary composition is concerned, or even the humbler task of conveying his ideas in clear language, but with the benefit of considerable familiarity with the subject; so that his pages contain occasionally an useful document, which the student of political economy may note, and turn to account in his comparative statements and reasonings. E. G.

Year.	Population about	Amount of Rates.	Number of Paupers relieved.
1688	5,300,000	665,362	563,964
1766	7,728,000	1,530,804	695,177
1783 }	8,016,000	2,004,238	818,851
1785 }			
1792	8,675,000	2,645,520	955,326
1803	9,168,000	4,267,965	1,040,716

The

The rental on which the poor-rates were collected in 1803 was about twenty-four millions sterling; and the average rate was 3s. 7½d. in the pound. The counties in which the rates were most moderate were Northumberland, Durham, and the East and North Ridings of Yorkshire. — The treatment of the poor in work-houses, was of course very different in different situations: the following bill of fare is taken from one in the Isle of Wight:

	Breakfast.	Dinner.	Supper.
Sunday -	Bread and cheese.	Mutton, beef, or pork, dumpling, or pudding.	Broth.
Monday -	Broth.	Baked suet pudding.	Bread and cheese.
Tuesday -	Bread and cheese.	Rice milk.	Ditto.
Wednesday -	Ditto.	Same as Sunday.	Broth.
Thursday -	Broth.	Baked rice pudding.	Bread and cheese.
Friday -	Bread and cheese.	Same as Sunday.	Ditto.
Saturday -	Ditto.	Broth thickened with rice.	Ditto.

We insert this little document in order to point out how proper it would be to take a lesson from our French or our Scottish neighbours; and to exchange the dry uncomfortable meal of bread and cheese in the morning, particularly in winter, for soup or hasty-pudding. — The pamphlet, we are sorry to add, contains very little else worth notice; it is full of trifling details; and, venturing to go beyond his subject, the author falls into a surprizing miscalculation in recommending (p. 39.) that we should send out British land-holders and labourers for the cultivation of the East Indies.

**Art. 37.** *Remedies proposed as certain, speedy, and effectual, for the Relief of our present Embarrassments.* By an Independent Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 51. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Like others on the same subject, this pamphlet is ill calculated to meet the general wish, or to realize the confident expectations that it excites. With a very limited conception of the causes of the existing distress, the writer has little disposition to consult the welfare of the public at large, and confines his views solely to the relief of a particular class. He cannot bring himself to be satisfied with that progressive remedy which (as far as our situation admits of remedy) will not fail to be produced by the natural return of things to their level; and his impatience for a more speedy relief leads him to recommend the establishment of a new public bank; from which, after a fund should have been lodged with commissioners, notes might be issued on the security of merchandise, land, or other property. 'A man might thus coin his houses, his furniture, the goods in his warehouse, his ships at sea, the debts due to him, &c. so as to make the whole a disposable fund for accomplishing his payments.' This curious plan proceeds on the notion that our distress arises from want of money; as if want of property were

were not the grand feature of embarrassment among the classes whose complaints are loudest. Money is and always has been of use only as a circulating medium; and no one will deny that the country possesses (particularly since the late postponement of the resumption of cash-payments) a sufficient stock, either of coin or paper, to transact the whole of its business.

Other suggestions here offered are on a par with the whimsical project which we have just explained. We have in one part (p. 41.) a recommendation to raise the import limit of corn from eighty to a hundred shillings per quarter; and, in a few pages afterward, we are presented with a most extraordinary project with regard to the management of the national debt.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *Essays on various Subjects.* By William Pitt Scargill. 8vo. pp. 207. Boards. Darton and Co. 1815.

We often complain of the privation that we often feel;—of the non-existence, we mean, in the present age, of some sensible collection of moral and literary essays, descriptive of the character and habit of the times. Some attempts have been made to supply the deficiency: but they have been themselves as deficient in the *variety* requisite to the general success of such an undertaking, as in the learning and genius which must be its first foundation and continued support.

The present volume contains *Essays on the Difficulties in the Way of the Acquisition of real Knowledge*;—on the Principles of Grammar;—on the Management of the Temper;—on the Impolicy of War;—and on Conversation, which is an agreeable and practical composition.—The first of these essays is also an useful and creditable performance in its general complexion. It judiciously states that the great advantage of early education consists in the acquisition of mental habits, and in the cultivation of that fundamental property of all intellectual excellence, the *fixedness* of attention. More, indeed, might have been said on this peculiar branch of the subject, but altogether we are pleased with the paper. On the other hand, we cannot but consider the essay on the Principles of Grammar as singularly unfortunate. The author sets out with endeavouring to establish some universal principles to which all languages must conform, or be ungrammatical; and truth and common sense extort from him, in the course of his essay, the admission that there are peculiar canons appropriate to this or that nation, which do not affect the speech of the whole community of the human race. All the faults, in a word, which he charges on particular grammars, or individual grammarians, are equally attributable to the classical authors themselves; and Mr. Scargill does not shrink from the consequence, but attacks Dr. Withers and Cicero with equal unconcern:

“*Ruffum! qui toties Ciceronem Allobroga dixit.*”

Mr. S. evidently forgets that the first framers of languages were not philosophers; and even the still more homely truth that, in the

the catalogue of literary births, *classical criticism* is very posterior to *classical composition*. Several judicious distinctions are made between essential and accidental rules, in this essay: but we have to wish that the whole was written in a somewhat less arrogant and indistinct style of discussion.

The essay on the Management of the Temper contains a number of important truisms; and we are far from undervaluing the repetition of such useful knowledge. We should think that no passionate man, who has not completely overcome reflection, could read this paper without a moral effect.

Mr. Scargill has respectable powers of original thinking; and we like the bias of his mind in his general hostility to war. Much ridicule has been thrown on *universally pacific feelings*: but it would be easy to laugh again. At all events, the jokes that even our highest assembly ought to have blushed to re-echo, about dying with Grotius and Puffendorff in our hands\*, are and must be now exploded. War cannot be often so offensively and so *anticipatingly* necessary as its advocates have not hesitated to maintain.

Art. 39. *Memoirs of an Old Wig.* Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

Some learning and some humour are displayed in this little work: but alas! as learning conjoined with humour in every age and nation has too often testified, so auspicious an union does not exclude the admixture of some grosser particles and properties. In a word, this author, although he is occasionally heavy, is also occasionally facetious; and, if the former censure were the only drawback on the latter praise, we might safely recommend his book as better than most of its kindred contemporaries: but we are sorry to say that considerable indelicacy is betrayed in various parts of the work, and decided grossness in some passages. The account of Swift is particularly objectionable.

Art. 40. *Conversations on Matrimony.* Intended as an Accompaniment to the Letters lately published on the Duties, Advantages, Pleasures, and Sorrows of the Marriage-State. By John Ovington. 12mo. pp. 143. Button and Son.

Two intimate friends, named Martin and Trueman, being disposed to form matrimonial connections, here agree to hold a parley together on the duties and advantages of the marriage-state. Their opinions are found to be in perfect unison, and some amusing cases in point are adduced to confirm their mutual sentiments. That of Mr. Edmonds is cited in favour of marriage, 'whose house-keeping did not cost more after marriage, and with two children, than when he was single;' and Mr. Freeman, who, when a bachelor, generally spent his whole income, 'now reserves something every year for his wife and children:' while the pitiable situation of Mr. Adams serves as a caution against wedding 'a female master instead of a wife: a mistake which makes him both

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\* See the Debates on the Copenhagen Expedition.



'ridiculous and miserable.' To the misfortunes of this luckless couple, the conjugal felicity of Mr. and Mrs. Beaumont forms a pleasing contrast. Mr. Crauford, on the other hand, when he married Miss Downton, 'knew that she was in no respect a suitable match for him : ' but the hope of the money 'made him wink at those inclinations of Miss Downton, which he ought to have known would prevent their happiness.' In chapter iv., a gentleman of the name of Theophilus is introduced, who enters into a very copious consideration of the whole process of courtship, from the first stages of early acquaintance until its termination ; and this personage takes a leading part in the conversation, being the mutual friend of both Martin and Trueman, by whom he appears to be held in great repute. His opinions, however, breathe too much of the spirit of a certain school to be particularly accordant with our own.

Art. 41. *The Wanderings of a Goldfinch ; or, Characteristic Sketches in the Nineteenth Century.* 8vo. pp. 355. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

The peregrinations of this airy wanderer, who is the principal character in the piece, give rise to some amusing narratives, chiefly relative to the manners and complexion of modern times. The style of writing, though altogether too inflated, and deficient in simplicity, (owing, we apprehend, to the avowed inexperience of the author in such compositions,) is yet lively and entertaining. The book, indeed, appears to have been produced under every possible disadvantage from the singular concurrence of afflicting events, which, we are informed, the fair writer has been fated to endure. We congratulate her on the many respectable and distinguished names prefixed to the publication, and cannot but hope that its sale may be found to answer her expectations.

The dedication is signed Mary Anne M'Mullan.

Art. 42. *Eura and Zephyra, a classical Tale : with poetical Pieces.* By David Booth. 8vo. pp. 106. Gale and Fenner. 1816.

This tale of Eura and Zephyra is an amusing little prose-allegory, in which the author has contrived, with considerable judgment, to convey many useful and important lessons of morality under the interesting garb of fiction. The poetical pieces, also, which Mr. B. has been ingenuous enough to avow 'were added in order to swell the work to the size required by the bookseller,' are strongly indicative of a mind early admitted to the sacred haunts of the Muses, and deeply imbued with impressions of refined and classical imagery

Art. 43. *The Universal British Merchant ; embracing, in a systematic Manner, the epistolary Style of commercial Correspondence, between Great Britain and the principal trading Cities of Europe : the Mode of effecting Insurances, drawing, remitting, importing and exporting their respective Commodities, and innumerable mercantile Occurrences : adapted to cultivate and familiarize the Student with the general and real*

Transactions of the Counting-House. Translated from the French of "*Le Negociant Universel*." To which is added an Appendix, giving an Outline of general mercantile Knowledge. For the Use of Schools and those intended for Business. By W. Keegan, A.M., Master of Manor House Academy, Kennington Lane; and Author of "*Le Negociant Universel*," &c. 12mo. pp. 407. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1815.

Mercantile men are in the habit of discouraging all attempts to teach business by theory; and we must confess that they would not be very wrong if all publications on trade were of a character like the present. Mr. K. begins by inscribing his book to a gentleman well known in the city as an accurate book-keeper and accountant, but the strain of the dedication is very far from conformable to the plain and direct language of business. A similar animadversion is applicable to the letters which are introduced in great numbers as specimens of mercantile correspondence: in which, instead of the clear and concise style of the merchant, we find repetitions, diffuse explanations, and exaggerated compliments, all indicative of their French origin, and all different from such as would be recommended by an experienced merchant of London or Amsterdam. What are we to say of a teacher of composition who uses such expressions as (p. 3.) 'the price *entirely* depends *more or less* on foreign orders?' It looks also not a little strange to see in English such a mercantile firm as (p. 169.) *Macpherson, father and son*; a translation evidently of *père et fils*. The only useful part of the book is the conclusion; in which are several very proper tables of weights and measures, foreign coins with their values, and explanations of mercantile terms. Here, however, is a necessity for repeated corrections in such odd passages as (p. 377.) '16s. make a French Louis d'or, and 1s. 10d. a Dutch stiver or penny!'

Art. 44. *Statement of the Claim of Lieutenant-General Sir Samuel Auchmuty on the Java Prize Money.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

A question respecting the Java prize-money arose in consequence of Admiral Drury, who was to have commanded the naval part of the expedition, having died before it took place, and being succeeded by Captain Broughton, the next senior officer; who was afterward superseded in command by Admiral Stopford, from the Cape station. The different claims of these and the military officers produced several memorials to the Lords of the Privy Council and to the Prince Regent; and the decision on the case seems to have called forth the present statement from Sir Samuel Auchmuty. The discussion is interesting only to officers similarly circumstanced: but to them we may recommend this pamphlet, as being sensibly and temperately drawn up.

#### SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 45. *Sermon prêché à l'Eglise Suisse, le 4 Juin 1815, pour la Société des amis des Etrangers dans la Détresse. Par le Rev. L.A. Anspach, Pasteur de l'Eglise Française de Londres.* 4to. 2s. De Boffe, &c.

A fortible

A forcible appeal to the generosity of the public, in behalf of a society which has for its object the very laudable and charitable purpose of affording relief to those among our fellow-creatures, who, besides the misery of exile from their homes, and the privation of domestic comforts, are enduring the additional grievances of an impoverished and necessitous condition. The discourse has been published at the request of the Directors of the Society; and the profits of the sale are to be applied for the benefit of those in whose behalf it pleads. We trust that it will meet with the circulation which it merits, and produce those good effects which it is truly calculated to promote.

Art. 46. *On the Benefits of choosing a heavenly Kingdom in preference to an earthly one*; by William Dent Asperne. 12mo. 6d. Asperne.

We are informed that this 'is entirely the unassisted production of a youth not yet thirteen years of age;' and it affords a flattering indication of future merit. We sympathize entirely with the feelings of the parent, whose partiality and admiration have induced him to offer to public notice this early promise of the abilities of his child: but we would caution him against encouraging, in any degree, those vain and self-conceited opinions which are too apt to accompany premature distinction, and which never fail to render disgusting that which would otherwise be worthy of the highest panegyric.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have been favoured with a long letter from the Rev. Dr. Richardson, of Moy, in Ireland, in reference to our notice of his *Essays on the Cultivation of Fiorin Grass*, in the Papers of the Bath and West of England Society; (see our Number for October last, p. 136.) and we regret that its extent precludes us from inserting it in our *Correspondence*. Being desirous of communicating to our readers the statements and evidence, with which Dr. R. here confirms his former representations of the astonishing produce and value of this grass, we have attempted to form such an abridgment of his communication as would be admissible into our pages on account of length, and satisfactory in point of substance: but we find even this to be impracticable. It is our intention, therefore, to endeavour to procure a place for this letter in a respectable Magazine for the ensuing month; and, if we succeed, we shall beg leave in our next Number to direct the attention of our readers to it in that situation. The discussion is really important, and the authority on which it rests is amply sufficient to warrant us in bestowing on it adequate respect.

An answer has been sent to *B.* according to the direction in his note.

*Anacharsis* will find in this Number an account of the work concerning which he is anxious.

*P. Q.* will probably be satisfied in our next Review.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1816.

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ART. I. *Paul's Letters to his Kinsfolk.* 8vo. pp. 468. 12s.  
Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

As the intercourse between nations has increased with the spread of commerce and the arts, and the desire of seeing "men and cities" has augmented with the general diffusion of knowledge, civilization, and luxury, the race of travellers and the publication of their journals have become extremely abundant. In no period has this been the case more remarkably than in late years: yet so amusing and instructive do these tours often prove, that no branch of reading is more generally pursued; and, notwithstanding some trifling productions, we are little inclined to apply to the ardent and inquisitive traveller the indignant address of Juvenal to the ambitious warrior,

"*I, demens, et sævas curre per Alpes,  
Ut pueris placeas, et declamatio fias;*"

or to hint to him that all his achievements and peregrinations will finally avail him not, but that at last

"*Sarcophago contentus erit.*" (Juv. Sat. x.)

Within the narrow limits of the tomb, indeed, he must ultimately rest contented: but, while his rambles gratify his readers, and convey to posterity the benefit which may accrue from them, we are disposed to encourage, rather than to repress, the curiosity and the enterprize which break the bounds of mountains, seas, and deserts.

Considerable expectation was excited by the notice of the volume before us, partly from the interesting nature of a continental tour in the present circumstances of our neighbours, which under this quaint and indefinite title it was understood to relate, but much more from the well known talents of Mr. Walter Scott, the reputed author. When a writer, however, has overcome the formidable difficulties in the way of rising to reputation, his next point is to preserve the fame acquired; a matter that will be found of almost equal difficulty

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with

with the former, the hopes of his readers being regularly heightened by a reference to his past productions. Hence arises the great danger of indulging in hasty and desultory writing; a danger from which many persons may be disposed to think that the writer of these letters has not wholly escaped; and which would, no doubt, have proved somewhat serious, had not the attractions of the subject, and particularly the details of the memorable day of Waterloo, given an additional advantage of great moment to the labours of his pen. His arrangement is certainly not good, and his composition is frequently defective; yet we are rewarded for the trouble of perusal by other considerations, especially by the tone of moderation and good sense which is displayed throughout. This feature of the work has indeed left on us so pleasing an impression, that, though we differ from the writer on several points, we have no hesitation in bearing, on the whole, a favourable testimony to his performance.

Amid other marks of deficient care, the book wants a table of contents: but the several topics treated in it may be thus arranged:

*Arrival in Flanders; a few Observations on the Country, and on the Fortress of Bergen-op-Zoom. — Transition to the internal State of France; Causes of the divided State of public Feeling. — Bonaparte's Return in March 1815, and Preparations for the Campaign. — Battles of Ligny and Waterloo, with Explanations from a personal Survey of the Ground. — Farther Observations on Flanders; Journey by Valenciennes, Pont de St. Maxence, and Chantilly, to Paris. — Public Buildings; Scientific and Literary Collections; the Louvre; the Monuments of French Statuary; allied Troops in Paris; State of public Feeling; Difficulties in the Way of the Bourbon-Government.*

The different letters are written to the persons represented as forming the family-circle in Scotland, of which the author had been a member before he departed on his travels, and which is introduced to us as containing an officer of the rank of Major; a laird or country-gentleman; a politician; a clergyman; and finally a lady, the writer's sister. Particular letters are addressed to the individuals of the party according to the nature of their contents; the details of the battle of Waterloo being communicated to the Major; the observations on the internal state of France, to the politician; the description of the fine sights at Paris, to the Lady; and a smaller portion, on appropriate topics, to the clergyman and the country-landlord.

On

On landing in *Flanders*, this northern traveller takes notice of the resemblance between the Scottish and the Flemish people in the cast of their features, the sound of their language, and, to a certain degree, in their mode of living: a similarity which strikes him particularly in the old-fashioned *chateaux* or country-seats, consisting of two or three narrow buildings joined together by the gables, with a slender round turret ascending in the centre and containing the stair-case. The chief difference is in the stationary taste of our Belgic neighbours, who seem to have been wholly passive in architectural improvements during the last century; the time in which the most conspicuous ameliorations have taken place both to the north and to the south of the Tweed. In point of comfort, however, the Dutch and the Flemish cottages have certainly the advantage of the Scottish peasant; in consequence both of the longer introduction of habits of industry and of the superior fertility of the country:

You will forgive the deficiencies of one who, though for fifteen years doomed to be a farmer, has hitherto looked upon his sheep and cows rather as picturesque objects in the pasture, than subjects of profit in the market, and who, by some unaccountable obtuseness of intellect, never could interest himself about his turnips or potatoes, unless they were placed upon the dinner-table. Could I have got an intelligent Flemish farmer to assist me, I have little doubt that I might have sent you some interesting information from that land of Goshen, where the hand of the labourer is never for an instant folded in inactivity upon his bosom, and where the rich soil repays with ready gratitude the pains bestowed in cultivation. Promptitude and regularity, the soul of all agricultural operations, are here in such active exertion, that before the corn is driven out of the field in which it has been reaped, the plough is at work upon the stubble, leaving only the ridges occupied by the shocks. The fertility of the soil is something unequalled, even in our best carse lands, being generally a deep and inexhaustible mould, as favourable for forest-trees as for cultivation. Cheapness is the natural companion of plenty; and I should suppose that Brussels, considered as a capital, where every luxury can be commanded, is at present one of the economical places of residence in Europe. I began a brief computation, from which it appeared, that I might support myself with those comforts or luxuries which habit has rendered necessary to me, maintaining at the same time decent hospitality, and a respectable appearance, for about the sum of direct taxes which I pay to the public in Scotland. But ere I had time to grumble at my lot, came the comfortable recollection, that my humble home in the north is belted in by the broad sea, and divided from all the convulsions that have threatened the Continent, that no contending armies have decided the fate of the world within ten miles of my dwelling, and that the sound of cannon never broke my rest, unless as

an early *feu-de-joie*. These, with the various circumstances of safety and freedom connected with them, and arising out of them, are reasons more than sufficient for determining my preference in favour of my own homely home.' —

'The furniture of the Flemings, and, generally speaking, their implements of labour, &c. have a curious correspondence with what we have been accustomed to consider as their national character; being strong and solid, but clumsy and inelegant, and having a great deal more substance employed in constructing them than seems at all necessary. • Thus the lever of an ordinary draw-well is generally one long tree; and their waggons and barges are as huge and heavy as the horses which draw them. The same cumbrous solidity which distinguishes the female figures of Rubens, may be traced in the domestic implements and contrivances of his countrymen. None would have entertained you more than the apparatus provided for securing a horse while in the act of being shod, a case in which our Vulcans trust to an ordinary halter and their own address. But a Flemish horse is immured within a wooden erection of about his own size, having a solid roof, supported by four massive posts, such as a British carpenter would use to erect a harbour-crane. The animal's head is fastened between two of these huge columns with as many chains and cords as might have served to bind Baron Trenck; and the foot which is to be shod is secured in a pair of stocks which extend between two of the upright beams.'

We have no objection to these remarks, except in one very material point, — the statement of comparative expence between the two countries; and surely the writer of these letters had not conversed with Flemish house-keepers, or he would never have formed so moderate an estimate of the charges of a family. The difference between Brussels and Edinburgh is not more than a third in favour of the former; a proportion which may be confidently taken as the general rule of comparison between Flanders and Scotland at large.

The succession of topics treated in the volume would lead us, in the next place, to the fields of Ligny and Waterloo; but, however interesting, we are induced to pass by them for the present, with the intention of adverting to the author's report in a circumstantial account, which we design to give in an early Number, of these celebrated battles. We therefore proceed now to that part of the letters which relate to the French capital, and the various objects of natural history, statuary, and painting, that abound in it.

After a description of the *Jardin des Plantes*, and of the *Museum des Monumens Français*, we accompany the traveller to a still more splendid assemblage; we mean the grand Gallery of the Louvre, extending nearly a quarter of a mile in length; and lined on both sides, at the time of writing these letters,

letters, with the finest paintings in the universe. The author, however, not professing to be a critic in paintings, or to melt into raptures at the sight of the productions of Raphael or Titian, confines his observations to the grand question whether it was or was not expedient to remove these celebrated productions from Paris:

'The day of reckoning is at length arrived. The Museum, when I first arrived in Paris, was still entire. But Blucher, who was not, it seems, to be foiled a second time, has since made several visits, attended by a German artist, for the purpose of ascertaining and removing the pictures which belong to Prussia, or to the German states now united with her. The French guardians of the Museum also attended, no longer to decide upon the point of view in which the spoils of nations should be disposed, but to plead occasionally and timidly that such a picture formed no part of the cabinet of Potsdam, but had been stolen from some other collection. These demurrers were generally silenced by a "*Tais toi,*" or "*Halt Maul,*"\* from the veteran of Laon and Waterloo, who is no friend to prolonged discussions.'—

'The best judges seem to allow that the dispersion of this immense collection is by no means unfavourable to their progress and improvement. We readily admit, and each spectator has felt, that nothing can be more magnificent, more august, more deeply impressive, taken as a whole, than that noble gallery, prolonged to an extent which the eye can hardly distinctly trace, and crowded on every side with the noblest productions of the most inspired artists. \* Fourteen hundred paintings, each claiming rank as a masterpiece, disposed upon walls which extend for more than twelve hundred feet in length, form, united, a collection unparalleled in extent and splendour. But a part of this charm vanishes when we have become familiar with the *coup d'œil*; and the emotions of surprise and pleasure which the transient visitor receives, are gained in some degree at the expence of the student, or studious amateur. In a saloon of such length and height, lighted too from both sides, it is impossible that all the pictures can be seen to advantage; and, in truth, many cannot be seen at all. In a selection where all is excellent, and worthy of studious and heedful attention, this is a disadvantage of no common kind. But it is not the only one. Each of these paintings, almost without exception, have (*has*) in them (*it*) something excellent; but, independent of the loss which they sustain in common, by being so much crowded together, and by making part rather of one grand and brilliant whole, than subjects important enough for detached and separate consideration, the merit of some of these *chefs d'œuvre* so far exceeds that of others, as altogether to divert the attention from objects of inferior though still of exquisite merit. Few, possessing even the most eager love for the art, though they have consumed hours, days, weeks, and months, in the Museum, have been able

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\* Hold your tongue.'



to escape that fascination which draws them to the Transformation of Raphael, the Communion by Domenichino, the Martyrdom of the Inquisitor, and some other masterpieces. About fifty pictures at most, therefore, are copied, studied, examined, and worshipped, while more than twenty times that number are neglected and unseen, and, with all their admitted excellence, draw as little attention as the Nymphs and Graces in the suite of Venus. —

There are particular points in which even those distinguished and selected patterns of super-eminence which throw every inferior degree of merit into shadow, lose, in some degree, the full impression of their own merit, by being disjoined from the local associations with a view to which they were painted. This is especially the case with the religious subjects executed for altar-pieces, and for the ornaments of chapels, where the artist had laboured to suit not only his size of figures and disposition of light to the place which the painting was to occupy, but had also given them a tone of colouring and a general character, harmonizing with the solemnity not only of the subject but of the scene around. To many a thorough-paced and hackneyed connoisseur who considers the finest painting merely as a subject for his technical criticism, the divesting it of these exterior accompaniments will seem of little consequence. But those who love the art for the noble and enthusiastic feelings by the excitement of which it is best applauded, will feel some difference in considering a Scripture-piece over the altar of a Gothic church, and in viewing the same painting where it forms part of an incongruous assemblage of landscapes and flower-pieces, with a group of drinking boors placed on the one side, and an amour of Jupiter upon the other. — But had this objection not existed, — had these paintings been so disposed in various apartments as to give each its appropriate situation, and secure for each that portion of attention which it merits, still objections would remain to the whole system. There is no wisdom in venturing as it were the fortunes of the world of art in one single collection, exposed to total and irredeemable loss either from accidental fire, or the havoc of war, or popular frenzy. Had the Museum existed during the first years of the Revolution, its danger must have been most imminent, and twice during the space of a very few months has it narrowly escaped the risks which must have attended it had Paris been stormed.

Independent even of these considerations, and admitting this general accumulation of the treasures of art to be as desirable as it is certainly august and impressive, I should still hesitate to say that Paris is the city where they ought to be repositied. The French school, though it has produced many good artists, has been as remarkable for wanting, as the Italians for possessing, that dignity and simplicity of feeling which leads to the sublime. Poussin alone excepted, there is a flutter and affectation, a constraint of attitude to create point, and a studied contrast of colour and light to bring out effect, which marks the national taste; and from the charms of such Dalilahs, as Dryden calls similar flourishes :

Spanish in poetry, they never have weaned themselves, nor ever will. — 'Where the taste of those with whom he must naturally associate is systematically deficient, the young artist may lose as much through the influence of a French preceptor, as he could gain by studying in the Museum. I might also hint how little a capital like Paris, containing so many temptations to idleness and dissipation, is a safe abode for the young artist. —

'The taste of the French seems to be turned more towards the Hall of Sculptures than the Gallery of Paintings, and I think I can trace something of a corresponding partiality in the works of David, their greatest living artist, whose figures, though often nobly conceived and disposed, have a hardness of outline resembling statuary. My own taste (formed probably on habit, for we see few good statues in Britain,) would have inclined otherwise, and I grieve to say I was rather disappointed with some of those statues of antiquity from which I expected most pleasure. One monument can disappoint no one, — I mean the Apollo Belvidere, the sublime simplicity of whose attitude, and the celestial expression of his countenance, seem really more than mortal. — This fine statue, and the other specimens of art, seem to rise in value with the French as the hour of parting with them approaches. They talk to them, weep to them, kneel to them, and bid adieu to them, as if they were indeed restored to the rank of idols. But Baal boweth down, Nebo stoopeth, — the hammer and wedge have given awful note of preparation; the Venus, the Dying Gladiator, and many other statues, have been loosened from their pedestals, and stand prompt for returning to their native and appropriate places of abode. Many a lowering eye and frowning brow mark the progress of these preparations; and such is the grotesque distress in the countenance of others, that, as Poins says of Falstaff, if it were not for laughing I could pity them.'

The strain of these observations is too judicious and convincing to leave any doubts on the minds of our readers, or to require farther illustration at our hands. In point of politics, the case is somewhat different, the author having evidently lent too ready an ear to the flying rumours of the French metropolis. To judge from one of his remarks, (p. 431.) he seems of opinion that Masséna was unfaithful to the king, and favoured the progress of Bonaparte in March 1815; a charge which we consider as wholly groundless, not from any special confidence in the honour of that commander, but because, at the time in question, appearances were greatly against the success of the invader. A point of much more importance is the writer's belief, expressed in a variety of places, (pp. 58, 59, 61, 414, 463.) respecting the existence of a conspiracy in favour of Bonaparte, previously to his return from Elba. This notion is indeed so generally diffused throughout both France and England, that it should not be contradicted without a satisfactory stock of proof and argument; and we accordingly

request those, who are desirous of investigating the point with the scrutinizing eye of an historian, to cast a glance over the evidence in the trials of Labedoyère, Ney, Lavalette, and Drouot, the principal actors in this political tragedy. They will find in each of these a number of questions relative to such a plot, and in none the least proof of its existence. In fact, to have had meetings in Paris, or to have corresponded with Elba, would have been the surest mode of betraying the secret into the hands of the Bourbon-government; and General Drouot declared in court that, amid all the demands made on Bonaparte for favour and promotion after his return, no person ever brought forwards a claim on account of having borne a part in such a conspiracy.

As one of the assertions here lightly hazarded, we consider that (p. 344.) in which Lucien Bonaparte is represented, after the battle of Waterloo, as urging his brother to 'march a body of troops to the representative chambers, dissolve them at once, and take the full power into his own hands.' Lucien, we believe, went to Paris in the hope of prevailing on Napoleon to follow a very different course; to renounce the compulsory system *in toto*; and to throw himself unreservedly on the good will of the *liberalistes*, or temperate adherents to the Revolution. In describing his brother's state of feeling after his defeat and abdication, in a letter that was intercepted, Lucien said, "*Il est plein de courage et de calme*;" words that would certainly not have been used by him, had Napoleon so lately resisted his advice. The fact is that Lucien, though sufficiently dexterous in diplomacy, and possessed of cooler habits of reasoning than most men who have been educated in France, is not a military calculator, and was by no means sufficiently aware of the impracticability of his brother's standing his ground either in 1814 or 1815 against the united arms of Europe.

Another misapprehension, that caught our notice, was the idea (pp. 445. *et seq.*) that Huningen, Vincennes, and other places, which stood a siege by the allies, were defended by their respective commandants in opposition to the wish of the king. Is it not well known that the ministers of Louis, and of the allied sovereigns, had very serious altercations about the conditions of peace during the two months that followed the capture of Paris? — that they debated long and warmly on the amount of the contributions? — and does it not naturally follow that the king would delay the transmission of an order to surrender, until the allies chose to moderate a part of their demands? Military men are almost always ready to fulfil the orders of an established government, without staying to inquire

inquire into the manner of its appointment; and, in the present case, the question may be cut short by a reference to the plain fact that most of the commandants in question declared their readiness to surrender *à la vue d'un ordre du Roi*. The only doubtful point is whether the court sent these commandants a private injunction to stand out; or whether the latter considered the silence of the executive government as rendering it incumbent on them to fulfil the duty of soldiers in defending, as long as it was possible, the places committed to their charge. The latter, we are inclined to think, may have been the case in some of the frontier-towns: but we have no doubt that, with regard to the places threatened in the interior, such as Toulon and Cherbourg, the refusal of the commandants to admit the allied troops arose from a direct communication with the government at Paris.

With these preliminary cautions, and premising that the descriptive ardour of the writer obliges us occasionally to omit an overstrained epithet or sentence, we proceed to give an extract of some length on a topic of very considerable interest:

*State of Religion in France.* — ‘Buonaparte, who, when not diverted from his purpose by his unsatiable ambition, had strong views of policy, resolved upon the re-establishment of the church as a sort of outwork to the throne. He created accordingly archbishops, bishops, and all the appendages of a hierarchy. This was not only intended that they might surround the imperial throne with the solemn splendours of a hierarchy, and occasionally feed their master's ears with flattery in their pastoral charges,—an office which, by most of them, was performed with the most humiliating baseness,—but also in order to form an alliance between the religious creed which they were enjoined to inculcate, and the sentiments of the people towards the imperial dignity. The imperial catechism, promulgated under authority, proclaimed the duties of the catechumen to the Emperor to be love, obedience, fidelity, and military service; the causes assigned were Napoleon's high and miraculous gifts, his immediate mission from the Deity, and the consecration by the Pope; and the menace to disloyalty was no less than eternal condemnation—here and hereafter.—Buonaparte reaped but little advantage from his system of church-government, partly owing to the materials of which his monarchy was constructed, (for the best and most conscientious of the clergy kept aloof from such promotion,) partly from the shortness of his reign, but principally from the stern impatience of his own temper, which could not long persist in apparent veneration for a power of his own creating, but soon led the way in exposing the new prelates to neglect and contempt.

‘We must learn to look with better hope upon the more conscientious efforts for re-establishing the altar, which have been made by the King. Yet we cannot but fear, that the order of the necessary reformation has been, to a certain extent at least, the re-

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verse of what would really have attained the important purposes designed by the sovereign. — Indeed, far from supposing that the foundation of the altar should be laid upon the ritual of the Romish church, with all the revived superstitions of the twelfth century, it would be more prudent to abandon to oblivion a part at least of what is shocking to common sense and reason; which, although a Most Christian King might have found himself under some difficulty of abrogating when it was yet in formal observance, he certainly cannot be called upon to renew, when it has fallen into *desuetude*. The Catholics of this age are not excluded from the lights which it has afforded; and the attempt to re-establish processions, in which the officiating persons hardly know their places, tales of miraculous images, masses for the souls of state criminals, and all the mummary of barbarous ages, is far from meeting the enlarged ideas which the best and most learned of them have expressed. — It is with the hearts of the French, and not with the garments of their clergy, that the reformation, or rather the restoration, of religion ought to commence; and I conceive the primary object should be securing the instruction of the rising generation in religious and moral duties, as well as in general education, by carefully filling up the ranks of the parochial clergy, on whose patient and quiet attention to the morals of their flocks the state of the nation must depend, and not upon the colour of a cap, the tinkle of a bell, or the music of high mass.

‘ The truth is, that the King’s most natural and justifiable zeal for the establishments of religion, which were his chief consolation in adversity, has already given alarm to several classes of his subjects. Bigoted or interested priests have been already heard misrepresenting the intentions of their sovereign, so far as to affirm, he means to restore to the church all her rights, and impose anew upon the subject the burdens of tythes, and the confusion which must arise from the reclamation of the church lands. —

‘ It is chiefly in the southern districts, where the French Protestants still maintain themselves, that this alarm is excited, cherished, and fostered, by those who care for neither one religion nor the other, further than as the jealousies and contentions of both, may be engines of bloodshed, depression, and revolution. In the province of Languedoc especially, the angry passions of both parties are understood to be at full tide; and it unfortunately happens that the contending parties are there envenomed by political hatred. Buonaparte, whose system of national religion included universal toleration, extended his special protection to the professors of the reformed doctrines, and by an organic law concerning worship, published in the year X, guaranteed to them the free exercise of their religion, being the first public indulgence which had been extended to them since the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. — They took their ranks in political contest accordingly; and although interests of various kinds prevented the rule from being absolute, yet it was observed, during the last convulsions of state, that the Catholics of the South were in general royalists, whereas many of the Protestants, in gratitude for past favours

favours conferred on their church, in jealousy of the family of Bourbon, by the bigotry of whose ancestors their fathers had suffered, and confiding in the tolerant spirit of Buonaparte, lent too ready and willing aid to his usurpation. During that event, and those which followed, much and mutual subject of exasperation has unfortunately taken place between these contending parties. Ancient enmities have been awakened, and, amid contradictory reports and statements, we can easily discover that both parties, or individuals at least of both, have been loud in their appeal to principles of moderation when undermost, and very ready when they obtained the upper hand to abuse the advantages which the changes of the state had alternately given to them. This is a deep and rankling wound, which will require to be treated with no common skill. The Protestants of the South are descendants of the ardent men who used to assemble by thousands in the wilderness; — ‘On the other hand, the Catholics are numerous, powerful in the hope of protection and preference from the crown, and eager to avenge insults which, in their apprehension, have been aimed alike at the crown and the altar. If we claim for the Protestants, whose nearer approach to our own doctrines recommends them to our hearts as objects of interest, the sympathy which is due to their perilous situation, let us not, in candour, deny at least the credit of mistaken zeal to those whom different rites divide from us. — I trust, however, that our mediation will be, in the present case, unnecessary, and that the King himself, with the sound judgment and humane disposition which all parties allow him to possess, will shew himself the protector of both parties, by restricting the aggressions of either. In the meanwhile, admire the singularity of human affairs. In Ireland, discontents exist, because the Catholics are not possessed of all the capacities and privileges of their Protestant fellow-subjects; — in the Netherlands, the Catholic clergy murmur at the union, because the King has expressed his determination to permit the free exercise of the Protestant religion amid his Catholic dominions; — and in the South of France, the sword is nearly drawn, upon the footing of doubts, jealousies, and apprehensions of mutual violence, for which neither party can allege any feasible ground, except mutual dislike and hatred.’

These passages will afford our readers a clear idea of the author's views concerning some of the leading features in the political aspect of France. We are ready to acquiesce in the principal part of his statements and opinions, since he touches dispassionately and impartially on a variety of topics to which many travellers cannot advert without falling into ridiculous extremes; and the points in which we differ from him, and in which we venture to consider him as in error, relate less to general conclusions than to the statement of particular circumstances. It is rather odd that an author professionally conversant with the doctrine of fiction should be so little conscious

conscious of the inventive powers of the retailers of political news in Paris; yet such must be the case, or he would never have gravely recorded that Fouché, on the approach of Napoleon in March 1815, recommended that the Duke of Orleans should be proclaimed Lieutenant-general of the kingdom. Fouché must have been perfectly aware that the success of Bonaparte depended on the military, who neither knew nor cared for the Duke of Orleans.—Again, how can we reconcile to the ordinary good sense of the writer the belief that Bonaparte had visionary ideas about his own “fated destiny?” He was certainly too cool a calculator to listen to such pretended prophecies.—To the same class must be assigned the charge of ignorance (p. 61.) on the part of the police; the opinion (p. 350.) that Bonaparte was serious in his expectation of rendering Paris defensible against a superior force; and the idea (p. 357.) that Labodoyère, when arrested, was on the eve of putting himself at the head of a body of conspirators to assault the dwellings of the allied sovereigns and commanders in Paris.

Among the more important of the passages in which the author seems to have lent too ready an ear to report, are those in which he records the charges brought against the French soldiery. These may be reduced to two heads; their habit of living at free quarters even in a friendly territory, and their want of humanity in the late short campaign. The former is very properly attributed (p. 86.) to Bonaparte's base plan of making war without magazines, and thus turning loose a famished soldiery on defenceless inhabitants: but the charge should not have been brought against the soldiers in the positive terms used by this writer, without a retrospect to the exemplary behaviour of the French when under a better system, as in the days of Pichegru, and to the easy acquiescence with which, when disbanded, both in 1814 and 1815, they resumed pacific occupations, and became merged in the unoffending classes of mechanics or country-labourers.—Next, as to the cruelty said to be exercised towards the Prussians and the British in the late short campaign, we should keep in mind that the Prussians marched into the field with a lofty declaration of their hatred and scorn, expressing a determination neither to ask nor to give quarter. Such, indeed, is their animosity, that they would be far from considering a third appeal to arms in the light of a public misfortune: they would hail it as an earnest of fresh revenge, and would march anew into France with the same alacrity as before. As far, however, as the British were concerned, we know not any instance of cruelty at the hands of the French, except from  
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the lancers, a class of troops whose composition in a manner prevents them from making prisoners, and who are much more than others familiarized with scenes of bloodshed. The charge does not apply to the French infantry; who in Flanders and in Spain acquitted themselves, we believe, with as much humanity as could be expected from men suffering considerable privations, and misled by the vile machinations of an unprincipled leader.

*French Morals.* — ‘ A Frenchman to whom you talk of the general decay of morality in his country, will readily and with truth reply to you, that if every species of turpitude be more common in France, *delicts* of that sort against which the law directs its thunders are much more frequent in Britain. Murders, robberies, daring thefts, such as frequently occur in the English papers, are little known in those of Paris. The amusements and habits of the lower orders are, on all occasions of ordinary occurrence, more quiet, peaceable, and orderly than those of the lower English. There are no quarrels in the street, intoxication is rarely practised even by the lowest of the people, and when assembled for the purpose of public amusement, they observe a good-humoured politeness to each other and to strangers, for which certainly our countrymen are not remarkable. To look at the thousands of rabble whom I have seen streaming through the magnificent apartments at Versailles without laying a finger upon a painting or an article of furniture, and afterwards crowding the gardens without encroaching upon any spot where they could do damage; to observe this, and recollect what would be the conduct of an English mob in similar circumstances, compels one to acknowledge, that the French appear, upon such occasions, beyond comparison the more polished, sensible, and civilized people. But release both parties from the restraints imposed by the usual state of society, and suppose them influenced by some powerful incentive to passion and violence, and remark how much the contrast will be altered. —

‘ The French act from feeling, and the British from principle. In moments, therefore, when the passions are at rest, the Frenchman will often appear, and be in reality the more amiable of the two. — He piques himself upon some understanding and perception of the fine arts, by which he is told his country is distinguished, and he avoids the rudeness and violence which constitute a barbarian. He is, besides, habitually an observer of the forms and decencies of society, and has ample means of indulging licentious passions without transgressing. The Frenchman is further, by nature and constitution, a happy and contented mortal, content with little, and attached to luxuries of the more simple kind; and a mind so constituted is usually disposed to extend its cheerfulness to others. The Englishman is, in some degree, the reverse of all this. His intelligence seldom goes beyond the art to which he is trained, and which he most frequently practises with mechanical dexterity only; and therefore he is not by habit, unless when nature has been especially bountiful, much of a reasoning animal.

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As for pretending to admire or understand the fine arts, or their productions, he would consider such an effort of taste as the most ridiculous affectation, and therefore readily treats with contempt and disrespect what he would upon system be ashamed to understand. Vice and crime are equally forbidden by the Englishman's system of religious morals: if he becomes stained with gross immorality, he is generally ready to rush into legal *delict*.—And this may shew why, though the number of vicious persons be greater in France than in England in an enormous ratio, yet the proportion of legal criminals is certainly smaller. As to general temper and habits, the Englishman, less favoured in climate and less gay by constitution, accustomed to be a grumbler by his birth-right, very often disdains to be pleased himself, and is not very anxious to please others. His freedom, too, gives him a right, when casually mixed with his betters, to push, to crowd, to be a little riotous, and very noisy, and to insult his neighbours on slight provocation, merely to keep his privileges in exercise. But then he is also taught to respect the law, which he invokes as his own protection; to weigh and decide upon what is just and unjust, foul and fair; to respect the religion in which he has been trained, and to remember its restraints, even in the moment of general licence. It might indeed be wished that some of the lighter and more amiable qualities of the French could be infused into our populace. But what an infinitely greater service would the sovereign render to France, who should give new sensibility to those moral feelings which have too long lain torpid in the breasts of her inhabitants!

This great end can only be reached by prudent and prospective regulations; for neither religion nor morality can be enforced upon a nation by positive law. The influence of parochial clergy, and of parochial schools, committed to persons worthy of the important trust, are, as I before hinted, the most obvious remedies. But there are others of a prohibitory and preventive nature. It is in the power of government to stop some grand sources of corruption of morals, and to withdraw their protection and licence at least from those assemblies which have for their direct object the practice of immoralities of every sort. The Palais Royal, in whose saloons and porticos Vice has established a public and open school for gambling and licentiousness, far from affording, as at present, an impure and scandalous source of revenue to the state, should be levelled to the ground, with all its accursed brothels and gambling houses,—rendezvouses the more seductive to youth, as being free from some of those dangers which would alarm timidity in places of avowedly scandalous resort. Gaming is indeed reduced to all the gravity of a science, and, at the same time, is conducted upon the scale of the most extensive manufacture. In the *Sallon des Etrangers*, the most celebrated haunt of this Dom-Daniel, which I had the curiosity to visit, the scene was decent and silent to a degree of solemnity. An immense hall was filled with gamesters and spectators; those who kept the bank, and managed the affairs of the establishment, were distinguished by the green shades which they wore to preserve their eyes, by their silent and grave demeanour,

our, and by the paleness of their countenances, exhausted by constant vigils. There was no distinction of persons, nor any passport required for entrance, save that of a decent exterior; and on the long tables, which were covered with gold, an artizan was at liberty to hazard his week's wages, or a noble his whole estate. Youth and age were alike welcome; and any one who chose to play within the limits of a trifling sum, had only to accuse his own weakness if he was drawn in to deeper or more dangerous hazard. Every thing seemed to be conducted with perfect fairness; and indeed the mechanical construction of the E O tables, or whatever they are called, appears calculated to prevent the possibility of fraud. The only advantage possessed by the bank (which is, however, enormous) is the extent of its funds, by which it is enabled to sustain any train of reverse of fortune; whereas most of the individuals who play against the bank are in circumstances to be ruined by the first succession of ill luck; so that ultimately the smaller ventures merge in the stock of the principal adventurers, as rivers run into the sea. The profits of the establishment must indeed be very large to support its expences. Besides a variety of attendants who distribute refreshments to the players gratis, there is an elegant entertainment, with expensive wines, regularly prepared about three o'clock in the morning, for those who choose to partake of it. With such temptations around him, and where the hazarding an insignificant sum seems at first venial or innocent, it is no wonder if thousands feel themselves gradually involved in the whirlpool whose verge is so little distinguishable, until they are swallowed up with their time, talent, and fortune, and often also both body and soul.'

We perfectly agree with the writer that Englishmen are much mistaken when they expect more favour at the hands of the royalists than at those of the republicans in France. The former regard us as having taken part in the contest just as far as it suited our political views; and they unluckily participate in the general impression of their countrymen, that the severe sacrifices exacted last year from France by the allies were prompted by the vindictive jealousy of England. It is a fact, likewise, that few of the royalists have had such experience in public situations as to be useful to the King in the capacity of ministers: the chief exception to which exists in the case of the Duke of Richelieu, and some individuals who were employed during their emigration in Russia, where strangers are more readily intrusted with public business than in other countries. The great error of inexperienced ministers is in running into extremes by considering revenge as justifiable and severity as productive of strength. This would be bad policy among almost any people, and is doubly so among those with whom compulsion has never been the basis of a lasting ascendancy, and persuasion and mildness would be so much more effectual.

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'If you ask me, then, what are the legitimate resources of this unfortunate monarch, placed between the extremes of two violent factions, I would answer, that, under God, I conceive them to rest upon the good-will of the mass of the people of France. The agitators and intriguers of both parties bear an exceedingly small proportion to the numbers of those who only desire peace, tranquillity, and the enjoyment of the fruits of their industry, under a mild and steady government. With this class of people Louis XVIII. is deservedly popular; their tears attended his expulsion, and their rejoicings his return.—The best policy of the monarch is, to repress the ardent tempers of the clergy and nobles; to teach them that their real interest depends upon the crown; and that they will themselves be the first sufferers, if they give pretext for a new attack upon the Bourbons, by setting up pretensions equally antiquated and ill adapted with a free government. At the same time it may be necessary for the King, by exhibiting vigour and decision in his measures, to convince the more violent of the opposite faction that they cannot renew their attempts against the throne with the facility and impunity which heretofore have attended them. The very violence with which these parties oppose each other affords the King the means of mediating betwixt both. Let the people at length see clearly that the King desires no more than his own share in the constitution, but that he stands prepared to defend his own rights, as well as theirs. It may, perhaps, take some time to awaken the indifferent from that palsy of the mind which we have alluded to, and to put to rest the jealous fears of the proprietors of national property. But good faith and persevering steadiness on the part of the crown may accomplish both, and with these fears will subside the hopes entertained by those who delight in change; revolution will become difficult in proportion as its chance of success shall disappear; the ardent spirits who have frequented its dangerous paths will seek more pacific avenues to wealth and distinction; and from being her own plague and the terror of her neighbours, France may again be happy in herself, and the most graceful ornament of the European commonwealth.'

To these valuable remarks on the state of public feeling in France, the author adds a few observations of a more amusing cast on the frivolity and love of wonder that are characteristic of our southern neighbours:

'Any thing connected with show and splendour,—any thing, as Bayes says, calculated to surprise and elevate, is what they expect from their governors, as regularly as the children of London expect a new pantomime at Christmas. Buonaparte contrived to drown the murmurs which attended his return to Paris, in the universal speculation which he excited by announcing his purpose of holding a *Champ de Mai*, which is much the same as if William III. had paved the way to the throne by summoning a *Wittenagemot*. In England, some would have thought the Prince of Orange had lost his senses, and some, that he was speaking Dutch. But all

in England knew the meaning of a National Convention, the denomination by which William distinguished the assembly which he convoked. In Paris, it was exactly the contrary — the people did not want to see a national convention, or a national assembly either — they knew, like Costard, “whereuntill that did amount;” but the Champ de Mai was something new, something not easily comprehended; and it would have been a motive with many against expelling Buonaparte prematurely, that they would have lost the sight of the Champ de Mai. And thus they sacrificed their good sense to their curiosity, and showed their minds were more bent on the form of the assembly than on its end and purposes. After all, the *fête* was indifferently got up, and gave little satisfaction, notwithstanding the plumes and trains of the principal actors. But still it had its use. The Bourbons have been compelled also to sacrifice to this idol; and the King is himself obliged contrary to his own good sense and taste to conform to this passion for theatrical effect. A man was condemned to death, to whom it had been resolved to extend the royal pardon, and the King imagined, *tout bonnement*, that he had nothing to do but issue one from his chancery. But no — that would have been to defraud the public of their share in the scene. So he was advised to go (by pure accident) in the course of his evening drive, into some remote corner of the city, where he was to meet (also accidentally) with the municipality, who were to fall on their knees, and beg mercy for this delinquent, which the King was then to grant with characteristic grace and bounty, and all the by-standers were to shout *Vive le Roy*.’

The author finishes this curious paragraph by saying that it is not to be supposed that a nation so shrewd as the French are really blinded by these exhibitions. In this qualifying clause, we by no means agree with him; since we are satisfied that not one in twenty will ever think of doubting the reality of the circumstances brought before them. — The next topic is the election of the national representatives, a matter in which the course of events has, in a considerable degree, confirmed the negative predictions of the writer of these letters:

‘It is too much to be feared, that it will be found very difficult to assemble such a body of representatives, as may be justly considered as the organ of the nation. Could such a senate be convoked, we should hear on every side the language of peace and moderation, nor would the debates be warmer or more obstinate, than is necessary for elucidation of the measures proposed. Such an assembly, in the name of the proprietors of France, would deprecate the senseless agitation of theoretical questions, would recommend brief sentence on a limited and narrow selection of the principal agents of the last usurpation, whose fate seems essential to the vindication of justice, and the intimidation of the disaffected; and when that painful duty was executed, would proceed with joy to the more agreeable task of promulgating such a general amnesty as should throw a perpetual veil over the crimes and errors of that

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unhappy period. I might add, that such a senate would proceed by secret committees to tent the wounds of the country, to turn their attention towards the state of religion and morals, and to ensure the means of bringing up the rising generation, at least, free from the errors of their fathers. In their adjustment of foreign relations, such a council of state would recollect, that if the country had suffered reiterated humiliation, it was in consequence of reiterated aggression; and, avoiding painful and irritating discussions concerning the past, they would offer by such moderation the surest guarantee for peace and amity in future. Such would be the language of the representatives of the people, did they really speak the sense of the proprietors of France — not that those proprietors are sufficiently enlightened to recommend the special measures for attaining peace and tranquillity, but because they are sighing for that state of good order to which the measures of an enlightened representation ought to conduct them. But I have doubts whether this calm and wise course can be expected from the senators to be shortly assembled, since we hear of nothing on all sides but the exertions made by the two political factions of Royalists and Liberalists to procure returns of their own partizans. —

Those who propose themselves as candidates are men altogether distinct in their habits of thinking from the voters whom they are to represent. They are considered as politicians by profession, as men belonging to a class entitled exclusively to be chosen, and who, when chosen, relieve their electors from all further trouble in watching or directing their political conduct. The electors may assemble in their organic colleges, and may give their suffrages to a candidate for the chamber of representatives; but it will be in the same manner as they might chuse a person to repair the town-clock, when almost all the voters are ignorant of the means which the artist is to adopt for its regulation, and probably some of them cannot tell the hour by the dial-plate when the machine is put in order. On the contrary, the class in England upon whom the election of parliament devolves, is trained to their task by long habit, by being freeholders, members of common councils, vestries, and other public bodies, or by hearing business of a public nature discussed upon all occasions, whether of business or pleasure, and are thereby habituated to consider themselves as members of the body politic. —

I do not mention this difference between the inhabitants of the two countries, as a reason for refusing to France the benefits of a free representation, but to shew, that, for some time at least, it cannot have the salutary effect upon the political horizon of that country which arises from the like institution in our own, where there exists an intimate and graduated connection between the representative and electors, a general diffusion of political knowledge, and a systematic gradation from the member of parliament to the lowest freeholder; — where, in short, there is a common feeling between the representative and his constituent, the one knowing the nature of the power delegated, as well as the other does that which he receives, and both, though differing in extent of information,

ution, having something like common views upon the same subject. It may be long ere this general diffusion of political information takes place in France. It will, however, follow, if time is allowed for it, by years of peace, and of that good order which promotes quiet and general discussion of political rights.

With regard to the style and composition of this work, our chief objections arise from the haste in which it has evidently been put together. A number of passages might have been made more pointed and energetic, had the writer struck out those superfluous particulars which it is generally best to leave to the imagination of the reader. We ascribe to the same cause the want of an index or even a table of contents; and the occurrence of various typographical or verbal errors, such as (p. 31.) *proscription* for *conscription*; (p. 184.) *prosperity* for *adversity*; 2d June 1815 for 2d July 1815, &c. In another passage (p. 394.), we have the more serious mistake of ascribing to the Directory a profane decree promulgated by the Convention in the worst days of the reign of Robespierre. Again, the words "*Il est temps de nous sauver*," pronounced by Bonaparte on commencing his flight from Waterloo, are badly translated (p. 184.) by "it is time to save ourselves;" and finally we have (in p. 309.) a curious error respecting the time of removing the coffin of Marat to the Pantheon in the room of that of Mirabeau. This singular transfer took place not in 1793 but in the autumn of 1796, and was little else than a political manœuvre to divert the attention of the Parisians from recent military events of no pleasant nature.

The only pieces of poetry in the volume are a few translations, (pp. 210, 211.) in which we have no difficulty in recognizing the characteristic vigour of the author: but one of the most pleasing features of the volume is the frequency and the aptitude of poetical quotations: which, short as they are, afford a very amusing diversity, and, by the easy manner of their introduction, indicate a mind familiar with the long established standards of poetical composition.

To conclude, though the book might have been rendered much more correct by a careful revisal previously to its being sent to press, it deserves to hold a place among the best of the temporary publications of the day; and that the author expected to excite nothing beyond a temporary interest seems implied by his withholding his name from the title-page.

**ART. II. *Illustrations of Northern Antiquities*, from the earlier Teutonic and Scandinavian Romances; being an Abstract of the Book of Heroes, and Nibelungen Lay; with Translations of Metrical Tales, from the old German, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic Languages; with Notes and Dissertations. 4to. pp. 530. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.**

It is the object of this costly but splendid volume to bring the English reader acquainted with the Sagas and metrical Romances of the antient Gothic dialects. Hickes, in his *Thesaurus* printed in 1705, first turned the attention of the British public to this class of compositions; and The War-Song of Athelstan, and the Incantation of Hervor, are two of the finest specimens in his collection. Percy, in the *Northern Antiquities*, and Runic Poems, made known the entire system of Scandinavian mythology; and The Funeral Song of Hacon is justly valued by him as the triumph of Gothic poetry. Mr. Johnstone edited at Copenhagen several sagas connected with British antiquities, and accompanied them with learned translations. Mr. Cottle put into rime the Edda of Sæmund, but not with characteristic precision. Mr. Turner, in his extensive history of the Anglo-Saxons, has included various important notices, and especially an able analysis of the metrical romance of Beowulf;—and Mr. Herbert's Translations have familiarized the most peculiar sagas of the Scandinavians. Still, the literary archives of Germany included a very considerable mine of native poetry, of which hitherto *our* literature possessed no detailed account. Mr. Weber and Mr. Jamieson have accordingly there sought out a rich mass of neglected materials, of which they have in this volume supplied an extensive, elegant, and learned analysis. We proceed to specify its contents.

A prefatory dissertation is given by Mr. Weber, on the antient Teutonic Poetry and Romance. Schilter, in imitation of Hickes, formed the first collections of old German poetry, his *Thesaurus* having appeared in 1727: but, like its model, it contained too many hymns and homilies, with too few sagas, war-songs, and popular romances. In 1758, Bodmer revived the attention of his countrymen to these studies, and obtained assistance from the magistracy of Zurich, to print from the Manassén manuscript those remnants of one hundred and forty minstrels (*minne-singer*) which fill his two quartos. Professor Miller, in 1784, continued this plan of collection through two more volumes, and made known the great romance of the Nibelungs. In 1808, J. H. von der Hagen, a patriotic Prussian nobleman, published at his own expence a volume edited by Dr. Busching, which contains Saint George, King

King Rother, Duke Ernest, Solomon, Wigamore, and some other hitherto manuscript-romances. Many minuter efforts of the same kind might be recorded by the alert bibliographer.

Section i. sketches the history of Teutonic poetry and romance. The oldest piece of German verse extant is here said to be the Creed of Kazungali\*, which has been edited and ably illustrated by Græter. Otfried's paraphrase of the evangelists, which Schilter includes in his *Thesaurus*, stands next in point of antiquity; and The Song of Saint George, published at Copenhagen by Sandwig in 1783, (elegantly translated and illustrated in Sayers's *Disquisitions*, 1808,) is perhaps the third:—but the most valuable sample of the early versification is unquestionably the encomium on the victory of Louis III. of France over the Normans, which occurs in Hickes. The legend of Saint Anno, Archbishop of Cologne, a lyrical narration in strophes containing in all 880 lines, was edited by Opitz in 1639, and is referred by him with probability to the close of the eleventh century. Down to this date, the clergy were almost the only depositaries of literature, and seldom exerted the arts of composition but for religious purposes. Schools, however, they instituted; and they diffused, by means of their missionaries, a concerted method of speaking and writing the native tongues of the north.

Vernacular poetry existed at this period, which the clergy have noticed, but not brought into record; it consisted, however, of songs chiefly of unlettered poets, dear to the memory only of their contemporaries. Solemn prohibitions were addressed to the nuns, against getting by heart and singing love-songs; and a coarse obscenity, no doubt, was too leading a feature in these compositions. We find also ecclesiastical prohibitions to the people against singing, at the graves of their forefathers, *carmina diabolica*, meaning probably hearse-songs, in which heathen divinities are mentioned or addressed. An account occurs in some old chronicle of a quarrel between an archbishop of Mainz, and a count of Babenberg; which is stated to have been put on record, because of the great notoriety that it acquired from the satirical ballad which was in every body's mouth. Traces also are discernible that the name Isgrim, used for the wolf in certain old fables, was derived from an Austrian Count called Isengrim; and that the name Renard, used for the fox, was derived from Reinhard, a Duke of Lorraine: who both flourished pre-

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\* Mr. Weber is mistaken in supposing *Kazungali* to be a proper name; the word signifies *eloquence*, and is Frankish: it is formed like the German collective *gerügel*, from *sunge*, tongue.



viously to the twelfth century. These chaunters of love, however, these hymners of idolatry, these lampooners of the clergy, these seditious libellers of sovereigns, have alike perished, unwept and unknown for a long night \*; — because they did not know their letters.

In the year 1147, the Emperor \*Conrad III. undertook a crusade in concert with Louis VII. of France. This expedition brought the nobility of Germany into habitual acquaintance with the nobility of France; who, at that time, cultivated Provençal poetry as a gay science, and the apt accomplishment of a gentleman; and who were about to study the Norman story-books concerning Charles Martel and King Arthur. This taste for romantic literature was brought home by the German nobility into their own country; who first circulated the table-songs and lighter productions of their neighbours, and afterward the longer tales and metrical romances. The Frankish dialect, which had been the court-language of Charlemagne, continued to be that of the German emperors, until the accession of the house of Hohenstauffen in 1138; when the Swabian dialect, which was native to that family, acquired the upper hand. In the dialect of Swabia were composed the first imitations of Provençal songs, and the first translations of Norman romances; the vicinity of the province to France favouring a literary intercourse, and the acquisition of both languages. As long as the Swabian dynasty could maintain itself on the imperial throne of Germany, — namely, from 1138 to 1268, — the literature of chivalry was patronized at court, and the Swabian minstrels became the classics of their countrymen. It is to this period, principally, that the German nation owes those poetical monuments to which the volume before us solicits attention.

During about a century and a half, from 1150 to 1300, emperors, princes, nobles, monks, and minstrels, vied with each other in translating and producing lays of love, satiric fables, sacred legends, fabliaux, and metrical romances. Henry of Veldeg is the earliest whose name is known. The works of nearly two hundred poets of that period have been preserved, among which occur those of the Emperor Henry V.; of Wenceslaus, King of Bohemia; of the unfortunate Conradin, beheaded in 1268, who calls himself King of the Romans; and of Otto, Margrave of Brandenburg, who died in 1298. The usual topics of these poems are amatory, military, bacchanalian, and devotional; and in general they resemble the prototypes of the troubadours. Yet we may distinguish in the

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\* “*Ulachrymabiles, ignotique longa nocte.*” Hor.

German love-songs a Gothic veneration for the sex, and a more scrupulous constancy. Both the Emperor Henry and "the virtuous clerk" \* adore the shadow of their mistress, and declare that even her cruelty shall not induce them to break their vow of fidelity; while songs to the Virgin Mary flow not only from the pen of the friar Eberhard of Saxe, but from that of the knight Wolfram of Eschenbach. Watch-songs, which one knight, stationed as sentinel, is supposed to sing, while another is venturing into the chamber of his mistress, form a peculiar and national class of these compositions; and we find also some short lyrical narrations, ballads as we call them, which are not cast in French moulds.

So numerous are the romances of chivalry, that it becomes necessary to divide them into classes. Mr. Weber arranges first the native German romances; improperly, we think, because they are imitations of previously translated or imported works. Secondly, those which relate to Charlemagne and his twelve peers. Thirdly, those which concern French knights of the south; such as Aymeri de Narbonne, Fleur and Blanche-fleur, Malagis, and others, which are not of Norman but of Provençal origin. (We presume, at least, that this is the third class of Mr. Weber: but, apparently, a sentence is omitted in his thirteenth page.) Fourthly, the romances concerning Arthur and the knights of the Round Table. Fifthly, those which ascribe to heroes of classical antiquity the manners and exploits of chivalry. Sixthly, those which are unconnected with any of the preceding.

A set of romances concerning the history and adventures of a particular hero, such as King Arthur, is called by the German critics a *cyclus* of romance, which word has here been adopted by Mr. Weber. In each *cyclus* are several poets, who have versified favourite lays and adventures somewhat variously. Even the translated poems seldom agree entirely with their respective sources: but something is introduced to nationalize more or less the costume, the manners, the speeches, or the deeds of the heroes. With the usual instinct of patriotism, the German editors and critics pay most attention to the *cyclus* of native romance, and neglect comparatively the epopees which celebrate the heroes and worthies of other states: while to the English reader the court of Arthur, and the *cyclus* of round-table romance, are especially interesting for similar reasons. The poets of every country delight to seek in domestic history for themes of celebration.

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\* *Der tugendhafte schreiber* is, according to Mr. Weber, Conrad; rather, we think, Henry of Rippach.

Of the Swabian period, the principal poets are these: 1. Henry of Veldeg, the earliest; who must have been a native of Lower Germany, to whom the Swabian or court-dialect was strange; for in certain of his poems, preserved in a Vatican manuscript, he occasionally mingles Low-Dutch verses in his composition. This attempt may be compared with the public-spirited effort of Homer to render every Greek dialect a denizen of the national language. He delighted in trochaic metres and short rimed lines, and has attempted both lyrical and epic composition. 2. Hartman von Aue, or Owe, a Frank; who may also be classed both among the elegiac and the epic poets. 3. Wolfram of Eschelbach; who took part in that poetical contest at Wartburg during the year 1207, which is celebrated by many cotemporary bards, and which seems to have been imitated from the same institutions with the floral games of Toulouse. \* He was eminently industrious, and excelled in epic writing, but has recorded in elegiac song some disappointment of love. 4. Henry of Rippach; who took part in the contest at Wartburg, was a translator of epic works from the Provençal, and wrote original lays. One of his stanzas is the following:

“ Mir is sam der nahtigal,  
Der so vil virgebne singet,  
Und im doch ze leste bringet  
Niht wan shaden suezer shal.”

I am like the nightingale,  
Who sings so variously in vain.  
What does all his toil avail?  
His sweet song only brings him pain.

5. Walther von der Vogelweide, a nobleman of Thurgau; several of whose poems, included in Bodmer's collection, preceded the commencement of the thirteenth century. A patriotic character animates his song; which, however, implies an extensive knowledge of other countries. 6. Reinmar, the elder, of a noble family, whose seat was near the Rhine: he was one of the eight Wartburg competitors, but has not the ease of diction that was acquired by his younger rivals. 7. Nithard von Rüwenenthal, who wrote some comic verses, and among others a dance-song. 8. Count Conrad of Kirchberg, who wrote poetry on the seasons. 9. King Conrad, or Conradin, who has left a single but memorable love-song. 10. and 11. King Wenceslaus of Bohemia, (father of Ottocar,) and the Emperor Henry VII., who both attempted to twine the laurels

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\* *The Court of Love in Provence* is dated in 1180.

of Parnassus with those of royalty. 12. Godfred of Nifen, who in the year 1240 was at war with the Bishop of Constance, and who wrote lyric poetry. 13. Brother Werner, a priest, who left some moral stanzas; in which he relates an interview with the Emperor Otto, who died in 1218, and seems to have been much attached to him. He begins his tedious poem with Adam and Eve, finishes with the fair at Nuremberg, and attaches equal importance to all that passes across his mind. 14. Henry, Duke of Anhalt, who died in the year 1267, and was surnamed *the Fat* from his corpulency, but displays in his verses an active and alert galantry. 15. Burkard of Hohenfels, of a noble family in the Palatinate. With honest simplicity, he compares his own poetry to a mirror reflecting a monkey, and his mistress to a hand which beckons back at will the falcon just dismissed. 16. Otto of Henneberg, who had a castle at Bodenlauben, and died in 1254. 17. Werner of Tinsfen, who valued himself on conquering the difficulties of complex rimes. 18. Walter of Metz, who wrote French as well as German verse. 19. Dietmar of Ast. 20. Walter of Klingen. 21. Rubin of Tyrol. All these flourished in the middle of the thirteenth century; as also, 22. Reinboth of Doren, who wrote both galant and epic poetry. 23. and 24. Duke John of Brabant and Margrave Henry of Meissen, are to be included among the noble poets of this period, although but few of their compositions have been preserved. 25. Godfred of Strasburg, who is classed by Oberlin among erotic poets in his dissertation *De poetis Alsatiæ eroticis mediæ ævi: Argentorati*, 1786: but he is better known by his epic exertions. 26. Ulrich of Lichtenstein, who wrote merry poems in a dactylic metre, of which he may be considered as the inventor. 27. Heinrich von Rugge, who copied these dactylic verses. 28. Ulrich of Winterstetten, who affected short lines and frequent rimes, such as Swift called Lilliputian poetry. 29. Brother Eberhard of Saxe, who left a hymn to the Virgin, which is included in Bodmer's collection, and surpasses most of the religious poetry of his time. 30. Duke Henry of Breslau, who acceded to the sovereignty in 1266, and wrote a canzone in the Provençal manner. 31. Christian von Hameln, who composed some watch-songs of a voluptuous turn. 32. Tannhausen, of a noble family in Bavaria, who delighted in merry compositions, and displays much reading. 33. Conrad of Wurzburg, who flourished at the close of the Swabian period between 1275 and 1300, and terminates the list in a manner not unworthy of its commencement.

Of all the French romances which these poets transplanted into Germany, none became so popular, or produced so great an

an effect there, as that of Chrestien de Troyes, intitled *Le Roman du Graal*; or, as Warton (vol. i. p. 134.) translates the title, *The Adventures of the Sangrale*. By the *Sangrale*, derived it seems from *sang-réal*, the real blood, was understood a dish, or charger, supposed to have served at the last supper, and to have been employed in receiving the precious blood of Christ from the side-wound given on the cross. This relic is stated to have been brought by Joseph of Arimathea into northern Europe, to have become the property of King Arthur, and to have been intrusted by him to the custody of Sir Percival. Probably, a part of the legend is of Provençal original, and the combination of it with heroes of the Round Table is an addition of the French romancer. In this mixed form, it was adopted by Wolfram of Eschelbach, and given in two successive poems called *Parcival*, and *Titurel*; the latter of which displays much of invention peculiar to the translator. Warton had not discovered any English version of this singular and celebrated epopea: but one is preserved in Bennet-college library, executed by Thomas Lonely. Bodmer abridged and modernized the work of Wolfram of Eschenbach, which, under the title of *Der Parcival*, forms the most agreeable poem in his *Calliope*. To the cyclus of round-table romance also belong *Lohengrin*, an unpublished Vatican manuscript, and the *Iwam* of Hartman von Aue, which was separately edited at Vienna by Michaelis in 1786. Sir Lancelot was translated into German from the French of Arnaud Daniel, in 1190, by Ulrich of Zetzam. The *Gamuret* of Guyot was germanized in 1200 by Albert of Halberstadt; and the *Trystan* in 1250 by Godfrey of Strasburg. *Wigamore*, *Bliomberis*, *Flordibel*, and *Wigolais*, have also been sung.

To the cyclus of romances respecting Charlemagne, we might have expected from patriotic sympathies a more diffusive attention in Germany. The earliest poem of this class is a Frankish fragment, reprinted in Mr. Weber's appendix, (No. 1.) but first edited, we believe, in the second volume of Schilter's *Thesaurus*. A later Swabian version of the same story, derived from the pseudo-Turpin, exists, the author of which calls himself *Der Stricker*. Wolfram of Eschelbach versified also a romance of this class, called the *Margrave of Narbonne*: the first part of which, intitled *Saint William of Orange*, is by some ascribed to Ulrich of Thurheim:—a third part is still inedited, called *Renwart the Strong*. *Fleur and Blanche fleur*, translated by Rupert of Orbeut in 1226, rather belongs to the cyclus of Provençal romance. So does *Partenopex*.

Of

Of chivalrous poems relating to heroes of classical antiquity, the Germans have fewer specimens to exhibit than we have. The story of Alexander the great occurs; as also an *Æneid* by Henry of Veldeg; stories from Ovid, by Albrecht of Hulberstadt; an Apollonius of Tyre, and some others: but the names of Jason, Hector, Achilles, Hercules, and all the heroes of Guido of Colonna, do not appear to have attained so vernacular a celebrity. On the other hand, they have a greater mass of truly native, original, unimported romance, than any that has yet been dragged to light from the British libraries. The Lay of the Nibelungs, the Book of Heroes, and King Rother, are principal works of this class.

The Nibelungs are known to the sagas of Scandinavia by the name of Niflungar; and the Book of Heroes and King Rother draw from traditions of the Lombards the adventures celebrated:—but on the Teutonic cyclus of romance it will be best to hear the accurate and well-informed author before us. (pp. 20—26.)

‘ OF THE TEUTONIC CYCLUS OF ROMANCE.

‘ Before we enter into a general investigation of this comprehensive class of romances, and attempt to trace their connection amongst themselves, and with their romantic brethren of the North, we shall prefix an enumeration of such as are in existence at present, in the different libraries, and dwell peculiarly upon those of which abstracts are presented to the reader in this volume. For this purpose we shall follow the arrangement of Hagen, in the collection of ancient German poems mentioned above, which comprehends all those that have been hitherto discovered, with the exception of the oldest fragment extant of any of them, in prose. This, on account of its extreme antiquity, will be given entire in the Appendix, with a Latin and English literal translation. It is in the dialect of Lower Germany approaching very nearly to the Anglo-Saxon, and was printed in J. G. Eccardi *Commentar. de rebus Franciæ Orientalis*, (tom. i. p. 864.) with a Latin translation, and a very extensive body of notes, from a MS. which once belonged to the abbey of Fulda, from whence it was transferred to the library of the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The age of the MS., according to the learned editor, is the eighth century; and the romance, of which it is a short fragment, seems to have been produced in the times of paganism, as the principal hero, Hildebrand, invokes Irmin, the god of war amongst the Teutonic nations. The fragment consists of a dialogue between Hildebrand (who is one of the heroes in all these romances) and his son Hatubrand, which ends in a combat between them, and seems to have been the original of the song of Hildebrand, mentioned in the ensuing list, (No. 13.) a translation of which will likewise be found in the Appendix.

‘ 1. The first among the romances of this cyclus, not in point of the time of its production, but in priority of the events recorded in it,

it, consists of the adventures of Otnit, and of Hugh-and-Wolfrich, and forms the first and second part of the great Book of Heroes, or Legend of Champions; an abstract of which is given in this volume. Besides this romance, it contains two other portions, enumerated in this list, (No. 7, 8.) There are several manuscripts of this extensive work in the Vatican at Rome, at Strasburg, Vienna, Frankfort, &c. It was first printed in the fifteenth century, without date, and reprinted, with little variation, in the years 1491, 1509, 1545, 1560, and 1590; all of these editions having wooden cuts tolerably executed. From a transcript of the last, the present abstract has been taken. The author of the two first divisions (and probably also of the third) of this work is the knight Wolfram of Eschenbach, born in Bavaria, who flourished about 1207, and was patronised chiefly by the Landgrave of Thuringia. He was a most prolific poet. Besides the present work, he is asserted to be author of *Titurel*, or the *Guardians of the Holy Graal*, of *Percival*, *William of Oranse*, *Lohengrin*, *Duke Frederic of Swabia*, the *History of the Emperors*, and *Godfrey of Bouillon*, all of them poems of great length.

‘ 2. *Etzel's Hofhaltung*, or *The Court of Etzel*, (*Attila*;) exists at *Dresden*, in MS.

‘ 3. *Dietrich and Sighehot*; was printed in the years 1490, 1577, 1613, and 1677.

‘ 4. *Ecken Ausfahrt*, the *Expedition of the Ecken*; printed in 1491, 1512, and 1577.

‘ 5. *The Earlier Combats of Dietrich and his Champions*, in MS., at the Vatican.

‘ 6. *Romance of the youthful Adventures of the Horny Siegfried* printed at *Nurimberg*, without date. It relates the same adventures of this hero which are the subject of a popular book still very current in Germany. The hero leaving his father, wanders about for many days, till, driven by hunger, he is forced to work for a smith; but his strength is so prodigious that he splits the anvil with the first stroke. The smith gives him some blows, and he in return throws him to the ground. In order to be revenged upon the young apprentice, the smith sends him, under pretence of fetching charcoal, to a forest, inhabited by his brother, who had been transformed into the shape of a dragon. But Siegfried tore out several trees, threw them on the monster, and then set fire to the pile. The fat of the dragon run upon the ground like a rivulet, and Siegfried accidentally dipping his finger in and finding it become of a horny consistence, bathed his whole body in the fat, and thus rendered it invulnerable, with the exception of a place on his back, where a leaf happening to stick, prevented the fat from having its due effect. (See the *Nibelungen*.) Afterwards he releases the daughter of King *Gilibaldus*, who dwelt upon the *Rhine*, from a dragon who had ravished her from her father's court; and achieves many other adventures with wild beasts, giants, and dwarfs. He is married to the princess, and killed by the envy of her three brothers in the same manner as in the *Nibelungen*.

‘ 7. The

7. The great Garden of Roses at Worms, which forms the third division of the Book of Heroes. Another poem on the same subject, but differing widely from the printed copy, is at Strasburg, and in the Vatican.

8. The little Garden of Roses, or Laurin, King of the Dwarfs, being the fourth and last part of the Book of Heroes. It was the production of Henry of Osterdingen, a cotemporary of Eschenbach's, and a citizen of Eisenach. A copy, greatly enlarged, has been printed from a Copenhagen MS., by Nyerup, (*Symbolæ ad Lit. Teut. Antiq. Havniæ, 1787, p. 1—82.*)

9. The Duke of Aquitania exists in MS. at Vienna, and is probably either the original, or a translation of a very curious Latin poem, which appears to have been written by a monk. It was printed by Professor Fischer in 1780, under this title,—*De prima expeditione Attilæ, regis Hunnorum, in Gallias, ac de rebus gestis Waltharii Aquitanorum principis, Carmen epicum seculæ VI.*, from a manuscript of the thirteenth century. Another edition was given by Molter, in 1798. The poem opens with the praise of Attila and his expedition from Pannonia. Gibicho, King of the Franks, sends the youth Hagano, a descendant of the Trojans, with rich treasures to deprecate his wrath. Herrik, King of Burgundy, whose residence is at Cauillon, beyond the Aar and Rhone, gives his daughter Hiltegunnd as hostage to Attila, and Alphere, King of Aquitania, sends his son Walther for the same purpose. Hiltegunnd, Hagano, and Walther are educated at the Hunnish court, and to the former the royal jewels are given in charge. Meantime, King Gibicho dies, and his son Gunthar refuses to do homage to the Huns, which Hagano hearing, he flies from Attila. Walther persuaded the Princess Hiltegunnd to accompany him in his flight. She filled two chests with golden rings from the treasury; and they took occasion to effect their purpose during a feast. Walther rode on his horse Leo, armed after the manner of the Huns, with a two-edged sword on his left, and a one-edged one on his right side. The Princess rode on another horse with the treasure. They only travelled during the night, and arrived in a fortnight at Vuormatia, (Worms,) the residence of the Frankish king. Walther gave some fishes which he had caught by the way to the ferryman who had ferried them over the Rhine, which the latter brought to the royal table. Gunthar knowing them not to be the produce of the Rhine, and inquiring how he obtained them, heard of the arrival of the knight and the Princess, and of the two chests, which, from the sound they emitted, appeared to contain gold. Hagano, by the description, recognized his fellow Walther; but King Gunthar resolved to seize on the treasures, and indemnify himself for those his father had sent to Attila. He accordingly assembled his champions, and pursued Walther, whom he overtook in the forest of Vagovia. In a place where two rocky mountains formed a narrow cave, the Aquitanian prince was attacked, after he had refused to give up the treasure; notwithstanding Hagano had used every exertion to prevent the combat, the evil consequence of which to the King he had beheld in



in a dream. For this counsel he was upbraided as a coward by the king, and sullenly retired to a neighbouring hill, where he beheld the fight. Of the other eleven champions who had accompanied Gunthar, eight defied Walther, one after another, and were all felled to the ground by him. The remaining three use a very curious weapon, which is described in several chronicles of the Franks, against him. They throw a trident with strings at his feet, and endeavour to cast him to the ground, and then to murder him. But he stands firm, and kills them all. Gunthar flies to Hagano, who is reconciled to him, and advises him to get Walther into a snare, by a feigned retreat. Walther, not suspecting the stratagem, remains in a cave, and in the morning, when he issued to proceed on his journey, is attacked by the King and Hagano. The former soon falls before the Aquitanian, and fractures his thigh-bone; and the latter, after having struck off his opponent's right hand, had his head opened, and his right eye thrust out, by the poniard of Walther. Then the three heroes reconcile themselves, drink together on the field of battle, and joke upon the loss of their limbs. The Franks return to Worms, and Walther to Aquitania, where he reigned in peace for thirty years.—The subject of this poem is alluded to, towards the conclusion of the song of the Nibelungen; and a very similar story occurs in the 86th and the following chapters of the Wilkina-Saga, an account of which will be given in p. 28, &c. There the hero is called Walther of Waskastein, which name he also bears in the third part of the Book of Heroes. Fischer judges the poem to have been written in the sixth century. It was probably produced in the time of King Pepin. The MS. at Carlsruhe appears to be of the ninth century; and in the chronicle of the abbey of Novalesse, founded in the eighth century, at the foot of Mont Cenis, printed by Muratori, and by him judged to have been compiled about 1060, an account is given of Walther, son of Alfer, King of Aquitania, who was a monk in that monastery, and underwent similar adventures. A quotation is given in the chronicle from the Latin poem. The principal heroes of it also occur in the Nibelungen and the Book of Heroes, but there, instead of Franks, they are Burgundians.

10. and 11. The Flight of Dietrich to the Huns, and his vain endeavour to recover his realm. Both in a MS. of the Vatican, transcribed in 1477.

12. The Song of the Nibelungen, and the Lament. Of this most ancient among the Teutonic metrical romances, there are three MSS. at St. Gallen, Hohenems, and Munich. The latter half, with the Lament, was printed separately by Bodmer; and the whole in Miller's collection, mentioned above. A new edition, in which the orthography and the principal antiquated words have been modernised, but the versification and the antique cast of the language retained, was published in 1807, by Hagen\*. From a comparison

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\* We have to regret that the copy which has reached us wants the introduction, which would have given us great light upon the history

comparison of the latter with the old copy in Miller, the abstract in this volume has been made. It is not easy to determine in what age the poem was written, and the author is unknown. At the end of the Lament, which is in a different measure, and was probably written by a different person, and in a subsequent period, the author of that poem names himself Conrad; from which evidence Miller very absurdly concluded the whole to be the work of Conrad of Wuerzburg, who did not flourish till the years 1280 and 1300. I have no doubt whatever, that the romance itself is of very high antiquity, at least of the eleventh century, though certainly the present copy has been considerably modernized. It will be seen immediately that it is quoted in the *Wilkinsa-Saga*, as being very ancient at the time that work was compiled, which was about the year 1250.

13. The Song of Master Hildebrand. The oldest copy is at Dresden, in MS. From an ancient edition, in which it has been considerably shortened; it was reprinted by Eschenburg, and a translation of the latter will be found in the Appendix, No. 2. The chief value of the ballad, besides that of the poetry, is its coinciding so nearly with the ancient prose-fragment already mentioned.

14. King Rother; a very ancient poem, which has lately been published from the only manuscript of it which is known, in the Heidelberg library, at the Vatican. It forms, as it were, an intermediate chain between the German cyclus of romance and that of Charlemagne. The hero is the grandfather of that emperor, and the father of Pepin. Almost the same story, but attributed to a different set of actors, occurs in the *Wilkinsa-Saga*, (pp. 113—132.) The German editor supposes, with great probability, that it was produced in the first half of the twelfth century. The antiquity of the language, and the rudeness of the versification and of the rhymes, which are very similar to those used in the poem of St. Anno, mentioned above, vouch for the truth of his supposition. The fable of the poem is so singular, that an abstract of it deserves to be given to the English public.

The introduction next proceeds to give an account of various sagas and romances of the Scandinavians.—The entire dissertation manifests a precision of information, an erudition of detail, and a comprehensive completeness of circumspection, rarely displayed by the poetic antiquary. If something of the elegance and amenity of Warton be wanting in the style, more of method is evinced in the arrangement, and more of fundamentality in the research.

*[To be continued.]*

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history of the poem, and its connection with Scandinavian romances, as the learning of M. v. d. Hagen insures the great research of his investigations.

**ART. III. Du Congrès de Vienne, &c.; i.e. On the Congress at Vienna.** By the Author of the "Antidote to the Congress of Rastadt," the "History of the French Embassy to Warsaw," &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1815. London, Bossange and Masson.

**The Congress of Vienna.** By M. de Pradt, Author of the "Antidote to the Congress of Rastadt," &c. Translated from the French; complete in one Volume. 8vo. pp. 240. Boards. Leigh, and Bossange and Masson. 1816.

**T**HE interest excited by M. de Pradt's account of his embassy to Warsaw in 1812, of which we made a report in the Appendix to our lxxviiiith Volume, prepared the public to look for a considerable share of curious information and remark in the present work; and in this expectation they will by no means be disappointed. We have not here, indeed, as in the former production, minutes of official conversations, but we are furnished with a variety of liberal and sometimes luminous observations on the principles that ought to regulate the permanent policy of Europe. Though the author will certainly not stand high, in a moral point of view, with those who remember his former subserviency to Bonaparte, or with the more limited number who will condemn his disclosure of the confidential views of his *quondam* master, yet in acuteness, knowledge of the principles of history and perception of the improved system of government that is necessary in the altered state of Europe, we are induced to assign him no inconsiderable rank among the political reasoners of the age. We shall therefore lay before our readers a detailed report of the more interesting passages; translating from a copy in the original French, and finding frequent occasion to amend the style by omitting the repetitions and curtailing the redundancies, that are unavoidable on the part of a writer who has no idea of taking the pains which are necessary to prepare a volume for the press.

Near the beginning of the work, we have a very interesting chapter under the title of *Etat Nouveau des Nations*, by which is meant the important change introduced in the course of the last century in the political views and feelings of the great mass of society. 'Our soil,' says M. de P., 'remains as before, but it is inhabited by a new race;—men move under the same sky, but with very different views. In former days, warlike contests or religious controversies absorbed public attention; at present, we are occupied with the diffusion of general improvement.' This change, the result of the extension of knowledge and of the more general communication of countries with each other, took place on the continent at a much later date than in England. The progress

gress of inquiry led men first to investigate the nature of existing institutions as a point of fact, and, in the second place, to discuss their propriety as a matter of reasoning.

‘ Having arrived at this point, the face of things necessarily underwent a change. As it always happens, powerful minds appeared in this new arena and took possession of it ; and their energy, which at another time they would have dissipated on questions of fact or pure abstraction, was employed to examine the original principles of law and government. These writers undertook to analyze every thing at its source, and established themselves firmly in their high stations.—The rest of mankind followed in their train. Opinions have been formed, have been extended, have circulated, have penetrated every where. The communication settled between all nations has served as a vehicle to the change. A new language has been introduced among all classes: the rights of mankind thus recovered have become the manual of rising generations: after more than five thousand years, the world has declared with a powerful voice that it has not always belonged to masters, and that it has not surrendered itself without conditions. Society has formed a new contract, and the nature of the antient sovereignties has undergone a change.

‘ Let him who entertains a doubt of this general tendency in Europe examine what has been written for the last sixty years; let him observe the subjects which writers have discussed by preference, and in what department they have obtained reputation; and let him remember to what school Catherine and Frederick attached themselves, and whose suffrages they courted. These writings are not, indeed, all stamped in the same mould; they do not all bear the same character of grandeur, and are not all recommended by the same merit in the execution: but they all have the same tendency: not one of them has failed to add to the stock which existed before, or, like an instrument in a concert, to be heard even when it was not distinguished. The education of all nations has proceeded simultaneously. Formerly, they understood each other without speaking; now, they understand each other from having conversed for twenty-five years through the medium of the Revolution: a dreadful instrument, which may have alarmed, but has not separated them. On this as on other occasions, justice has eventually been done: all that was barbarous, or injurious to the rights of the people, has been viewed with horror, and rejected; while that which was good, and conducive to the welfare of the people, has been preserved with care, and now remains among the treasures of nations. The Revolution produced only despots to France: but civilization has levelled a death-blow at despotism throughout Europe. Every where it has given birth to Constitutions, or made the want of them be felt. Information extends its influence in every direction; and it can neither be stopped in its progress nor diverted from its course.’—

‘ Once established, this formidable engine can never be destroyed; and we must endeavour only to give it a proper direction.

REV. AUG. 1816.

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tion. — If there be men who are afflicted by this truth, let them console themselves by examining it more closely. They will then find that what suits others will also suit them; that it is by this diffusion of information, which they dread so much, that they have been saved, and will yet be preserved; and finally that *it is only in straight and well-lighted roads that we are free from precipices or robbers*. Patriotism, truth, publicity — these are the three standards under which the world claims the right of marching for the future; and woe to him who does not join the common banners! The people have acquired a sense of their rights and their dignity. They know that they are the beginning and the end of society; that its powers do not exist for a few individuals, but that these individuals exist for them.' — 'Every thing ought, therefore, to have a reference to the good of the people: but how is this to be effected? by the people themselves, or by the medium of others? Shall nations resemble those indolent persons who commit the care of their property to other hands? Because they have done it once, shall they continue to do it always? — On this question depends the necessity of a government so constituted as to give the people a share in the management of their own affairs, and to enable them to take immediate cognizance of them. Let them regulate the forms by all the particular circumstances which distinguish different nations, but let the interference take place at all events: it is indispensable.

'In what manner is the influence of the people to be maintained; — by truth, by publicity? — to demand these is only to demand what cannot be prevented, and what exists in every enlightened country, whether the government will or not. Besides, how can men be deceived after all that has happened? Deceive them! How long? Conceal! yes, for a moment: but, with the multitude of eyes which are always directed to public events, how can any one flatter himself that the mystery of to-day shall not be exposed to-morrow in the open streets? Europe is covered with a population of readers, of writers, of men accustomed to conduct affairs, or to anticipate them, so as to find the means of preserving their property at the time of their occurrence. Society may be called a forum that is never empty; and would you flatter yourselves with deceiving men who have so many means of knowing every thing that you do! — If you cannot deceive, still less can you conceal. That which is said in one country is said in another; and as long as a British parliament shall exist, there will be a tribunal for all Europe. Besides, what would be the consequence of this disguise? that which Napoleon experienced, — general incredulity. In the present state of the minds of men, whatever is not clear leads to distrust, and deception often repeated induces an excess of suspicion.'

If the force of these remarks be felt by an English reader, they are much more applicable to an inhabitant of the Continent, whose habits of discussion and sentiments of freedom have, in a degree, taken their origin in the present age. Fortunately

fortunately for us, the critical period at which power was transferred from the families of barons to the hands of a single ruler, — that period which in France was so effectually turned to the account of the crown by Richelieu, — passed over in England without any permanent deduction from the influence of the people. A variety of causes co-operated to this most desirable result: but the greatest and most decisive of all was the absence of a standing army, and our happy privilege of finding the means of national defence in a species of force which can never be employed to the subversion of our liberty.

‘ The natural progress of things will lead the different constitutions to an approximation to that of England. One or two examples of this kind, decidedly given, will bring over the rest; and, at all events, how shall men be prevented from establishing such constitutions in the end? How can governments withstand the inclination that all men feel to procure that which is best for them? If they traverse the ocean to gratify the most frivolous tastes, how shall they be prevented from seizing that which they think is the most important to their solid happiness when it is within their reach? It is thus probable that England will add, to the titles to glory which she already possesses, another that will outshine them all, that of serving as legislator to the world. Pacific and beneficent laws will form for her a more honourable sceptre than that which she extends over the ocean. This conformity in legislation will establish very strong bonds of fraternity among mankind in general; it will render wars both less frequent and more humane. How few are the real subjects of war between nations! When ministers shall have to propose to the people the liquidation of the expences of a war of which they cannot justify the motives, they will look to it more closely before they begin. However paradoxical it may appear at first, the more the influence of the people shall increase, the higher will the power of the sovereign rise, the wider will the roots of his influence extend, and the firmer will be their hold.

‘ England, to which we must always refer in questions of political legislation, presents at once to the king and the people this double guarantee of their stability. What king is more powerful in the midst of his people? What people have a larger share in the power of the sovereign? The Stuarts were ruined by attempting to render their power exclusive; the house of Brunswick sees their’s daily increase from having shared it with the nation.

‘ Such is the course plainly traced out for governments at the present day. They can have no difficulty as to the choice; civilization has decided the question. Let them remain intimately connected with their people: but, above all, let them not separate power from knowledge. Such a separation will be fatal to any who may attempt to introduce it, because knowledge has become the possession of all, instead of being a privilege reserved for a few.

We do not see more of talent than formerly; perhaps even superior minds are less observable as the diffusion of wealth admits of fewer great fortunes, but produces more general comfort. The subjects on which only select persons had formerly the means of exercising their faculties have now become common to all. Thirty years ago, not many men in France knew the produce of the *taille* and the *gabelle*. Government, particularly financial government, was an occult science, of which none but adepts were informed: but what is now unknown in this sanctuary? Europe is filled with statistics, and the accounts of the public expenditure of all nations; and numerous journals daily bring a certain tribute of information, which has become an article of first necessity, but of which the people on the Continent had formerly no notion. Public discussions and deliberative assemblies have tutored the minds of men to other conceptions and other ideas than those which formerly possessed them. At the same time, whatever may be said, never were nations in a sounder state; and it would be as difficult to establish among them an error with regard to their true interests as to establish an error in geometry. Great is the mistake of those who think that nations consent because they are silent: wait a little, and you will see whether it is not then that they remonstrate most loudly. It is equally certain that nations have not become more difficult to govern since they became more enlightened: they require only to be governed in a different way. Who would think of proposing the same thing to a learned and an ignorant man; or of putting the same bit in the mouth of the wild courser and the horse who has been trained to measure his steps? To reign over enlightened nations easily, they must be governed according to their state of knowledge; if that be opposed, they become refractory. Look at the English; would it be possible to govern them a single day in contradiction to the sense of the nation? while by coinciding with it the government moves freely in every direction, and is as powerful within the kingdom as it is formidable abroad.'

From these discussions on the nature of government, M. de Pradt proceeds to the diplomatic, or rather to the political history of Europe: which has offered, in his opinion, four grand opportunities of fixing the possession of crowns and the balance of power on a solid foundation. The first, for he does not go beyond the time at which politics became a science, was on the death of Charles II. of Spain in 1700, whose testament had the effect of rousing almost all Europe to arms against France: but the war of the Succession, long and successful as it was, ended more like a law-suit broken off by the exhaustion of the parties than a deliberate arrangement of statesmen. The cruel disappointment, experienced by the nations of Europe on this occasion, is very properly attributed by M. de Pradt to the despotic form of every government except those of England and Holland, the consequence

sequence of which was a preference of personal and family-feelings to the general interests of the people. The next opportunity, but a less favourable one, was on the close of the war begun in 1741 on the demise of the Emperor of Germany, when Prussia attacked Silesia, and France obtained for a time a footing in Germany. After various alternations of fortune, this contest came to an end in the same way with all that are prosecuted without a definite object, in consulting individual accommodation rather than the comprehensive benefit of Europe. — The third and most favourable of all, had Bonaparte been alive to any liberal considerations, was the time at which France, after having triumphed over three successive coalitions, found herself in a situation to give law first to Italy and soon afterward to Germany. Whether we advert to the treaties of Luneville, of Presburg, of Tilsit, or of Vienna in 1809, we find the permanent interest of Europe overlooked, and every effort directed to the aggrandizement of one country and one individual. All that can be said in defence of France is that the inhabitants by no means concurred in the endless aggressions of their ruler, and that they coveted nothing beyond the favourite limit of the Rhine.

‘ How much is it to be lamented that a mind so comprehensive and so enlightened as that of Bonaparte should have been so far misled as to think of combining such a crowd of elements, foreign to each other, and without the smallest connection in geographical situation, in language, in manners, or in interests! What power could make Rome and Lubeck consider themselves as members of the same state, or induce so many nations to agree to the common and involuntary oblivion of all the preceding circumstances of glory and renown that are peculiar to each? How, on the other hand, could Bonaparte not fail to observe the solidity which the establishment of an order, that was consistent with the interest of all, would have given to his own power? How happened it that he did not comprehend the glory which he would have acquired, by resolving the still undiscovered problem of the true system of Europe? Never was an opportunity offered to any man like that which presented itself to Napoleon. Every where, people wished only for peace, stability, and tolerable order. The fear inspired by France was very great; the fame of its ruler doubled this fear; he might have proposed any thing that he pleased for the general arrangement of Europe, and he would have obtained almost any thing. What do I say? Europe would have considered itself as happy in owing it to him! For an establishment which suited the interests of all, he would have reaped as many blessings from foreigners, as he obtained from Frenchmen for the restoration of public worship, and his other undertakings for the benefit of civilization; for it was less as a warrior than as the restorer of social order that the vows and submission of France were addressed to him in



the days of his popularity. The case would have been the same with Europe at large. The unreserved and absolute resignation, with which France abandoned herself to the direction of Napoleon, would have been imitated by all her neighbours under corresponding circumstances. He found every body so fatigued, that he could have accomplished almost any thing in the name of general tranquillity: he found every thing so broken down, that he might build anew where and how he chose: he found terror established to such a degree, that the absence of evil, or even a diminution of it, would have been deemed a benefit.

‘ If, instead of that succession of negociations and treaties which have frittered down Germany, and instead of the successive annexations of Italy, he had founded a suitable order in the one, confining himself to the limits of the Rhine so much regretted at the present day, — and had taken advantage of the unoccupied state of a great part of the territories of Italy to establish the order which I shall point out in another place, or even one more extensive, (which was equally possible,) — he would have seen all persons fly to meet him, and make their own happiness the pledge of his stability. Fortune, however, ordained otherwise: it has been her will that the man to whom she gave the power of overturning every thing should not know how to establish any thing; that he to whom it had belonged to restore should not know how to confirm; and that, for having wished to substitute his personal ambition for the welfare of mankind, he should at last be crushed by their united efforts. — Thus was lost, without any benefit to Europe, the finest opportunity which she ever had of constituting a well organized political body, and of finding in this establishment a compensation for the evils which she had suffered, or a solid pledge against their return.’

After these observations on the spirit of the times, and on the character of the man who made so gross an abuse of his power, M. de P. draws nearer to the subject of his book by introducing some reflections on the dispositions and proceedings of the Congress of Vienna. He cannot, however, even yet go straight forwards to his subject, but feels a necessity for moralizing at some length on the vanity of human passions, before he proceeds to place in our view the actual resolutions of these disposers of the fate of nations.

‘ How many errors and how many hours of repentance would men escape, if, at the moment of taking a decisive measure, they continued sufficiently masters of themselves to ask what they shall think at a future time of that which they are about to do: or in what light they shall consider the satisfaction that may be left them by the passion which now calls so loudly to be obeyed? If such an anticipation be the most difficult of our efforts, it is also the surest pledge of a prudent choice in our actions. Now that which holds good in morals holds good in politics. To act with a view to nothing but the present is in fact to act with a view to no time at all; — and to act with a view to our own interest solely is to act  
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for the interest of no one, not even our own.—All Europe had felt the evils of political convulsion. From Petersburg to Cadiz, the public attention had been for five-and-twenty years exclusively directed to the Revolution; and from Cadiz to Petersburg there ought, therefore, to have been no other object than to reinstate all that had been disordered, not with narrow views, but with an eye to general tranquillity. Hence the necessity of a public European spirit, which might proportion the reparation to the injury, and might exclude the consideration of all secondary interests. From Petersburg to Cadiz, what was the general want? Stability and repose. What was the general cry? Stability and repose. And this cry, like the voice of the people, was for once the voice of Providence.—With this clue in its hand, the Congress could not lose its way. No more was wanted than to fix the point of repose, and to discover whether it was to be found in the general order of Europe, wisely and liberally combined, or in a studied gratification of particular interests and systems.'

In the next chapter, the author comes to the consideration of the *Actual Disposition of the Congress*.

'The Congress of Vienna (he says) regarded itself as the supplement to the Congress which had signed the treaty of Paris. Its political objects appear to have been:

1. To place Germany out of danger of any new acts of interference on the part of France, and to prevent the latter from exciting one portion of Germany against the other, or against foreign powers.

2. To keep in reserve the unappropriated territories, as a common fund for the supply of the indemnities to be assigned to the different powers.

3. To stipulate for the establishment of constitutions in which the people should find a due allowance made for their progress in information, and a guarantee for a happier futurity.

4. To re-establish each power in its possessions, as far as this might be possible; demanding only such sacrifices as were required by the public welfare; and laying down, as the basis of those restitutions, that right of hereditary succession which was considered as the great means of restoring national tranquillity.

'The first part of this plan is pointed out in the precaution which has been taken to place so many centinels, as it were, at the gates of France. 1. The king of the Netherlands.—2. The king of Prussia, who comes in contact with France by means of his possessions between the Maese and the Rhine, and those which have been allotted to him with the same view on the Moselle.—3. The German empire, as guardian of the fortress of Luxemburg.—4. Austria, by the cession of Mentz, and certain portions of the department of the Saar and Mont Tonnerre which belonged to France, and which exceed the territory allotted to different princes brought from several parts of Germany to occupy them. It was not at first easy to say why Austria, after having obtained such large additions of territory in Italy and Illyria, should acquire these

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these possessions at so great a distance from the body of the empire: but it appears that it was the object of the Congress to put the keys of Mentz into a powerful hand; and to compress France by the whole weight of Germany, as well as by that of the kingdom of the Netherlands and of England, which will never separate from that state of her own creation, but will always be ready to defend it against France as a father defends his child.—Lord Castlereagh declared in the House of Commons that the approximation of France and Prussia, by the establishment of the latter between the Maese and the Rhine, is an idea of so old a date as the time of Mr. Pitt, and that it was first suggested by that illustrious minister.

‘ But, while the Congress provided so amply for the preservation of Germany against new inroads on the part of France, it did nothing to protect her from those with which Russia might threaten her. That power has already passed the Vistula, and is therefore in contact with Germany. The defensive means of the latter are weakened by the partition of Saxony, which in its present state is good for nothing but to exhaust itself in endless quarrels with Prussia. The Russian fleets may also insult the German coasts of the Baltic, which the French navy can never approach. This empire is therefore exposed to great dangers, and unluckily nothing has been done to enable her to ward them off. Russia, by appropriating Poland, has spoiled all: she has rendered every good combination impracticable, and has even favoured the views of aggrandizement which Austria may have formed. In fact, what could the Congress oppose to the demands of the latter, after having allowed Russia to take so large a stride, and to approach the centre of Europe in so threatening a manner? Austria was therefore left at liberty to appropriate the greater part of Italy, that other great violation of the security of Europe. As Prussia, however, could not remain an idle spectator of all these augmentations, since not to increase in power at an equal rate with others is in fact to fall behind, it became absolutely necessary that Prussia should on her side obtain compensations, and the means of keeping up the equilibrium. From that moment, she was perceived looking all around for indemnities.’

In speaking of England, two things seem predominant in M. de P.’s mind,—an admiration of our constitution, and a great dread of our naval power. To the former, we have, in course, no objection; the latter, as far at least as the means of annoyance are concerned, he certainly over-rates; and he discovers too deep a tincture of that hostile feeling with which the artifices of Bonaparte have unfortunately inspired the inhabitants of France. ‘ England,’ he says, ‘ is at sea what Russia is on shore. Europe stands between two gigantic powers, which threaten her equally on either element.’ He sees no chance of maritime independence without an alliance between France, Spain, and the Netherlands; as if our  
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navy were necessarily an instrument of hostility and oppression. — In another passage, adverting to our conduct relatively to the Congress, he observes that our policy should have been to prevent Russia from crossing the Vistula, and Austria from invading Italy; to throw additional power into the hands of Prussia; to extend the kingdom of the Netherlands all the way to the Rhine; and finally to exert ourselves to relieve Spanish America from the monopoly of the mother-country. How much, he adds, is it to be regretted that circumstances did not enable England to interfere, with a high hand, in these great questions; and that, by a tacit compact among the Powers, this country, — which in freedom of political discussion and extent of general views stands on so different a footing from the Continent, — should have accomplished little beyond the retention of her maritime acquisitions, and the foundation of the new kingdom of the Netherlands. The latter is, indeed, in M. de P.'s opinion, a point of the highest importance: he enlarges on it at great length; and his course of reasoning on what may, with perfect propriety, be called a British object, cannot fail to be interesting to our readers:

‘ The first trace that we discover of any solicitude for the general interests of Europe goes no farther back than the treaty of Utrecht, by which it was provided that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united on the same head. This was a truly European act. In other cases, “to take and keep for one’s self” composed nearly the whole diplomatic system of Europe. But the present epoch is not quite so barren in arrangements suited to the political constitution of Europe. Two have been formed, which cannot fail to be very favourable to it.—1. *The annexation of Norway to Sweden.*—2. *That of Belgium to Holland.*

‘ We have already explained the advantages of the annexation of Norway to Sweden. That which is good for both parties is equally good for Europe: it is a very wise combination, highly suitable to the two countries, and from which Europe cannot fail to reap great advantages. It will not receive less benefit from the annexation of Belgium to Holland; and the more this union shall gain in extent, the more useful it will become to Europe in general. This subject requires particular explanation.

‘ In its old proportions, Holland contributed very little to the general policy of Europe: it might indeed be called a bank and ware-house, but it scarcely formed one of her political members. As the population of Holland was too limited, and too much occupied with trade, to be able to furnish a national army, the Dutch army was almost entirely composed of foreign troops, and, in fact, it had ceased to be of any account in Europe. The navy was not large; and the colonies, being ill provided with troops, were therefore more difficult to guard from all the principles of dissolution which have affected the state of colonies in general for twenty-five years.

years. Belgium, if abandoned to itself, would have presented to Europe no more means of security than Holland. Austria had ceased to be in possession, both in fact and in right, and had even given up the intention of resuming it. At Venice and Milan, she had completed the desertion of Brussels. The Belgians had shewn considerable attachment to Austria; a sentiment equally honourable to the rulers and the subjects: but Austria had long felt the inconvenience of this continental colony, to which she had not, like Spain, any access by sea; and which also reduced her to a state of dependence on all the world. One year of war absorbed the profits of ten years of peace. The country was overrun before the corps destined to protect it had marched out of their garrisons: the enemy was at Lisle, the defenders in Bohemia and Hungary.—The barrier-treaty was an unlucky plan, more replete with hatred to France than security to Belgium; and at the same time, by placing these possessions of Austria within the reach of so many other powers, it seemed to have been concluded as much against her as against France. Finally, the possession of Belgium by Austria deprived that country of the enjoyment of the maritime commerce to which its situation is so well adapted by its rivers, its canals, and the disposition of the inhabitants.

Independence under a separate prince did not give the Belgians sufficient strength to make them useful to the general equilibrium. It might flatter a part of the inhabitants, but in the end it must have cost them all dear. Belgium, thus insulated, would have become a prey to all its neighbours without being of real advantage to any of them. In this state of things, it must have continued to be excluded from maritime commerce, and to be kept shut up within repeated lines of toll-houses and custom-houses. Its annexation to any sovereign of the empire presented the same inconveniences. It is not easy to say to what sovereign in Germany Belgium could have been given up with any appearance of advantage to the two countries, and to Europe. All these suppositions must be allowed to be pitiful. The more they are examined, the more their futility appears; and with it the necessity of returning to the only combination which the nature of things admits, the union of Holland and the Netherlands.

Let us now explain the advantages of this arrangement to the two countries, and to Europe in general. — The two nations are united by geographical situation, by climate, by language, by customs; and their difference of religion is not a serious obstacle to their union, because people may make their political interests common, and yet keep their religious opinions and duties very distinct. Several of the sovereigns of Germany present a similar mixture without being affected by it. The King of Saxony practises the Catholic religion with the greatest strictness, without losing any part of the affections of his people, who are almost all zealous Lutherans; and his neighbour, the King of Prussia, a Lutheran, is an object of affection equally to his Catholic and his Protestant subjects. The Catholic system prevails in Silesia; and in the war just ended that country has particularly distinguished itself by its

attachment to Prussia. It cannot be denied that religious conformity between the prince and his subjects, as well as among the subjects themselves, is a source of tranquillity, and gives additional facility to the government: but a difference of this kind does not exclude the possibility of a government suited to the good of the country. Besides, a sixth part of the population of Holland professes the same religion with the Belgians; and we might even say that the great number of Catholics in the two countries calls for a particular attention to that body, which prudence cannot fail to recommend. The Belgians and Dutch are therefore required by all the rules of national advantage to cultivate harmony.

‘ We may add that the good of Europe equally presides over this union. A state so situated as to stop the first movements of a powerful enemy, too weak to make conquests itself, but too strong to be conquered without a struggle, and without giving time for its defenders to come to its assistance; equally interested in supporting all its neighbours and weakening none of them; such a state, I say, is very well constituted to be inoffensive to all, and beneficial to each. Now this is exactly such a state as the annexation of Belgium to Holland presents. This country contains a population of more than five millions of inhabitants, a number sufficient for great public services; and let us remember what Frederick was enabled to do with a much inferior body of subjects. The riches of the two countries are very great, both in commerce and agriculture: they have therefore financial means equal or superior to those of great states. Thus constituted, the kingdom of the Netherlands throws into the balance of Europe a preserving and pacific weight which would not exist without it. It covers the north from the attacks of France, and France from the attacks of the north. Its principle ought to be to prevent the north from falling on France as much as to prevent France from falling on the north. It is a body interposed to prevent the shocks and deaden the blows that might be given on both sides.

‘ The kingdom of the Netherlands contains nothing alarming to France. What could it do against her? If it attempted any thing, even with foreign assistance, an army proceeding from Lisle and Valenciennes would, as the case has always been, fix the seat of war in the heart of its territory. On the other hand, France has as little interest in attacking it, because she certainly would not keep it. After all that has taken place since the occupation of Belgium by France, can any one think that the invasion of that country would not prove the signal of a general rising? Can it be imagined that England (*la redoutable Angleterre*) so deeply interested in the maintenance of this arrangement, which is in part her own work, would not at that very moment lay all the harbours of France under an interdict, order her thousand ships to cover the sea, and open her treasures to raise every arm against her? There can thus be no doubt that, in the present state of things, an attack on Belgium would involve France in a general war, without the hope of preserving it. Let us speak openly.—France ought not to consider her regret for the past but her interest for the future.

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It is at Bordeaux, on her coasts, in her colonies, that she should cultivate her resources. She ought to found her system on new circumstances; and these circumstances should induce her to consider the united provinces of the Netherlands nearly in the same light as Spain, and to pass from a state of jealousy to a state of general preservation.'

We shall resume the consideration of M. de Pradt's work in the *Appendix* to this volume of the Review, which will appear at the same time with our next Number. — In the mean while, we are sorry to observe that we cannot speak in favourable terms of the English translation. It not only attempts no correction of the exuberances of the original, but it contains a number of misapprehensions and errors, which may at once be seen by comparing particular passages (as p. 123.) with the French publication.

[To be continued.]

**ART. IV.** *History of the War in Spain and Portugal, from 1807 to 1814*, by General Sarrazin, one of the Commanders of the Legion of Honour, and formerly Chief of the Staff in the Corps of the Prince Royal of Sweden. Illustrated with a Map of Spain and Portugal, exhibiting the Routes of the various Armies. 8vo. pp. 390. 12s. Boards. Colburn. 1815.

**W**HEN the author of this narrative formerly came under our notice, (M. R. N. S. Vol. lxx, p. 238.) we stated that he was a man of considerable talents, disfigured by a variety of oddities and inconsistencies. Since the date of his preceding work, he has resided partly in England and partly in Sweden; and whether his imagination has been cooled by a northern atmosphere, or by the disappointment of his once sanguine expectations, the fact is that he now writes in a much more rational and deliberate strain. We have here no attempts to draw off the veil from secret conferences, such as those between Bonaparte and Cardinal Maury; nor any apostrophes to departed spirits, as in his fantastic address to the ghost of Kleber. The offences of the book are of a nature that fall much more commonly within our critical jurisdiction; such as the occurrence of repetitions, a want of connection in the narrative, and, above all, the absence of moderation in passing sentence on the conduct of the various Generals who are successively introduced. The two prominent figures on the canvass are Lord Wellington and Marshal Soult; the one raised by brilliant exploits, as it were, above the reach of censure; and the other long since declared, by General Sarrazin, to be the ablest of Bonaparte's lieutenants. Yet even these

these distinguished names do not escape the lash of this *impitoyable censeur*; and our readers would be not a little amused at his confidence, were we to make a display of the passages in which he ventures to call in question the tactics of our illustrious countryman: but the remarks of a man, who forms a conclusion before he is apprized of half the circumstances, deserve little notice; and we shall accordingly confine ourselves to those portions of the volume which claim attention on other grounds.

The most attractive parts of the work to an English reader are the passages expressing the opinion of this French officer on the different actions in which our troops defeated his countrymen. Whatever may be his antipathy to Bonaparte, General S. evidently preserves a strong feeling of attachment to his former associates, and is by no means disposed to take it for granted, as a matter of course, that an equal number of British will defeat them. His notice (p. 44.) of the battle of Vimiera would have been sufficiently fair if he had admitted the probability of the French being pursued and driven into the greatest confusion, had it not been for our unlucky change of commanders. He bears (p. 66.) a favourable testimony to the talents of Sir John Moore, and very properly lays the blame of the distress in his retreat on the apathy of the Spaniards. The battle of Talavera is described (p. 91.) briefly but impartially; that of Busaco (p. 142.) at somewhat greater length; and the memorable victory of Salamanca is related (p. 278.) in a manner sufficiently circumstantial. Marmont is, in his opinion, a very *mediocre* commander; and his wound in the beginning of the action was accounted fortunate for the French army, which might otherwise have been made to persist in the action until its left wing had been quite cut off. The loss of the British and Portuguese on this occasion was about five thousand; that of the French, including prisoners, about thirteen thousand; the relative numbers of the armies, at the beginning of the battle, were nearly similar, each being about fifty thousand.

We extract the account of the battle of Albuera as a specimen of the narration, and of the freedom with which General S. criticizes the commanders on both sides.

‘ On the 4th of April, 1811, General Beresford effected the passage of the Guadiana, experiencing scarcely any opposition. Marshal Soult, after having supplied Badajoz, had withdrawn the greatest part of his troops towards Andalusia. He committed the fault of leaving only five hundred men in Olivenza, when the extent of the place required, at least, three thousand. If he did not intend to keep this post, he ought to have blown up the fortifications, and sent



sent the ordnance, stores, and troops to Badajoz. The English quickly availed themselves of this defect. General Cole invested the place on the twelfth of April. On the fifteenth he opened his batteries, and the governor surrendered on the very same day. To facilitate this operation, General Beresford had marched to Llerena. On the sixteenth the cavalry of the allies defeated a French detachment, and took a great number prisoners. The retreat of the French to Guadalcanal, and Lord Wellington's arrival at Elvas, determined General Beresford to retrograde, in order to concert measures with his Lordship relative to the siege of Badajoz. The first conference took place at Elvas on the twenty-first. On the twenty-second the two generals reconnoitred Badajoz with great care. The garrison made a strong sortie against their escort, and was repulsed. The siege was resolved upon; but the overflowing of the Guadiana having prevented the construction of bridges, the allies confined themselves to a close blockade on the two banks of the river. On the third of May, the weather proving very fine, and the waters of the Guadiana being much reduced, the communications were secured, and the trenches opened. General Philippon, governor of Badajoz, defended the approaches of the place by well-timed sorties, and by intrenchments, or counter-approaches, which retarded the progress of the besiegers. On the tenth he made a sortie with twelve hundred men, took possession of the trench, which he damaged, and retreated only before a superior force.

On the twelfth, General Beresford was informed that Marshal Soult had left Seville on the tenth, in order to throw provisions into Badajoz. He therefore determined to raise the siege, and to concentrate all his forces, for the purpose of giving battle to the French. He sent all the implements of the siege to Elvas, and took a possession near Albuera. General Blake reinforced the allied army with his troops, in the nights of the fifteenth and sixteenth. At eight o'clock in the morning, Marshal Soult manœuvred on the right of the allies, to cross the small river Albuera; and, by a change of direction on the right, he marched two columns of infantry, and one of cavalry, as if he had intended to take the village of Albuera. The object of these movements was to mask the march of his main body of infantry, which wanted to cut off the communications of the allies with Olivenza, by Valverde. General Beresford guessed the intentions of Marshal Soult. He entrusted Blake with the defence of that wing, and had it supported by General Cole. The attack having become general, the Spaniards were driven from their positions; but the defence of the English was obstinate. The momentary confusion, occasioned by the successful charge of a body of Polish lancers, was soon repaired by the intrepidity of the soldiers, who, in the broken regiments, fought man to man with them. The principal merit of the Poles consisted in their novel equipment. The generals, who commanded the English divisions, did not wait for orders, to act with their columns. Wherever the danger was greatest, thither they marched with the utmost rapidity; and manœuvred with so much ability

ability and boldness, that they snatched the victory from the French, and forced them back to the positions which they occupied before the battle. Generals Cole, Stewart, Hamilton, Alten, and Hoghton, covered themselves with glory. The latter fell breathless, being struck by a chain-shot at the moment that he was charging the French at the head of his troops, and forcing them to retreat. The conflict ceased towards three o'clock in the afternoon; and the combatants were struck with horror at the dreadful havoc they had made in each other's ranks. The loss of the two armies was rated at nearly twenty thousand men *hors de combat*, whilst the total of their forces did not much exceed forty thousand.—'The slaughter of Albuera ought to draw down the severest censure upon the two generals, who were the wanton authors of it. Had General Beresford been sensible of the advantage which General Blake's arrival gave him, he would not have raised the siege of Badajoz. Assisted by the zeal of the inhabitants of Estremadura, he might, in two days, have drawn lines of contravallation and circumvallation.— Marshal Soult also had been informed, in the night of the fifteenth to the sixteenth, that the allies had raised the siege, and that General Philippon was destroying their works. What then could be his object in giving battle? His well-known humanity is a sufficient guarantee that he was not urged by the horrible desire of spilling blood. But he might have manœuvred on the sixteenth as he did on the seventeenth; and by this alike sagacious and humane proceeding, he would have shewn himself, not only equal in point of talents, but even far superior to his master, by the prudence and skill of his combinations. If, in attacking the allied army, Marshal Soult consulted only that ridiculous self-love, which makes the general interest secondary to the gratification of vanity, he well deserved the terrible chastisement he received, by the loss of a multitude of brave soldiers, whose training had cost him so many fatigues, and by the death of his intimate friend, General Verlé, who, for twenty years, had been to him what Berthier was to Buonaparte—his faithful companion in war, and his confidential associate. Verlé fell, like General Hoghton, charging at the head of his troops.— Marshal Soult ought to have congratulated himself on not having had Lord Wellington to encounter in the battle of the sixteenth, or he probably would have paid still dearer for his temerity.'

The exploit which chiefly fixes the attention of General S. is the capture of Badajos in 1812; an event equally intitled to admiration, whether we look to the difficulty of conducting a siege in defiance of the powerful army of the French in Spain, or to the gallantry with which the fortress was eventually stormed. Lord Wellington's disposable force, in March 1812, did not exceed fifty thousand men; while the French had eighty thousand, stationed indeed in remote positions, Marmont being in the north, and Soult in the south. Lord W. began his march from the central part of Portugal on the 6th

6th of March, and invested Badajos on the 16th; detaching General Graham with a corps of observation to cover the siege against such troops as might arrive from the south, and General Hill for a similar purpose to the east. Badajos was garrisoned by five thousand men full of activity and confidence, and under the command of Philippon, a distinguished officer. A sally made on the 19th was received by the besiegers at the point of the bayonet; and on the 26th Fort Picurina, a very important outwork, was taken by storm. From this day forwards, the danger became imminent: but neither Marmont nor Soult was aware of it in time. The successful defence of Badajos in the year before, and the additions lately made to the strength of the place, induced Marmont to think of nothing beyond a partial inroad into Portugal, and prevented Soult from pressing to its relief. The latter, however, was within a few days' march, when on the 6th of April the breach was deemed practicable, and the place was carried by a nocturnal assault. Our loss might, in General S.'s opinion, have been much less severe, had we only made feints instead of real attacks at the foot of the breaches.—After having accomplished this object, Lord W. did not remain to fight Soult, but moved northwards against Marmont.

The following observations were written before Lord W. had achieved his greatest victories :

‘ What immense benefits Lord Wellington would have derived from a few campaigns under General Kleber! Had he possessed the advantage of improving the uncommon talents, with which nature has endowed him, in the school of a general of the first rank, as Marlborough did under Turenne, he would most certainly have equalled his master. He has acted occasionally, as if he were afraid of giving battle. When a commander has troops that are able to scale a fortress, he may dare any thing, with a certain prospect of victory. All the battles fought by his Lordship were defensive. At Vimiera he was attacked by Junot; at Talavera, by Victor; at Busaco, and Fuente-de-Onora, by Massena. His engagements at Oporto against Soult; at Foz d'Aronce against Ney; and at Sabugal against Reynier, must have convinced him of the zeal, confidence, and attachment of the officers and soldiers of his army.’

These remarks, if true in point of fact, will rather strike English readers, who were formerly accustomed to consider that, if Lord W. were deficient in any one requisite of a commander, it was *caution* that he wanted.

In another passage, (p. 242.) the writer takes occasion to blame the plan of allowing General-officers to place themselves at the head of their columns in attacks, such as those of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos: an observation which was sug-

gested by the loss of General Craufurd, who died from the effects of wounds received on the former occasion.

‘ A General-officer is extremely valuable, especially when he is skilled in his profession. General Craufurd possessed the qualities requisite for a command in chief; whilst, at the head of a storming column, his thin person, and diminutive size, rendered him inferior to a grenadier. Captains, or lieutenant-colonels at most, ought to be charged with heading such attacks, which are always destructive, though often fruitless. Generals and colonels ought to be reserved for operations, requiring the talents which their situations demand, or suppose. General Craufurd had been personally known in Ireland, in the year 1798, to the author of this history; who entirely agrees with Lord Wellington in the sentiment, which his Lordship has so well expressed in his letter to the Earl of Liverpool, dated Gallegos, the twenty-ninth of January, 1812, when he says, that he cannot report the death of this officer, without expressing the profound grief which he feels on seeing his Majesty lose the services, and himself the assistance, of an officer of tried talents and consummate experience, who was the ornament of his profession, and calculated to render the most important services to his country.’

The last great exploit noticed in this volume is the battle of Vittoria, 21st June 1813. Lord W. now came forwards to act on the offensive at the head of a force which, comprizing Spaniards and Portuguese, is said to have been equal to eighty thousand men. The French were less numerous; though, had proper dispositions been made, an army of superior amount might have been concentrated. A rising ground near the village of Lubijana, the key of the French position, was taken by the right wing of the British at the beginning of the action; and Jourdan, who perceived its importance only when it was out of his hands, found it impracticable to reconquer it, notwithstanding repeated attempts. On the advance of the British centre and left, the French gave way, and, being cut off from the high road to Bayonne, fled precipitately in the direction of Pampeluna. Hence the capture of all their artillery, all their baggage, and even of their military chest; though in men their loss did not exceed six thousand, the victors being intent on plunder, and the ground not favourable to the pursuit of cavalry. Great, however, as were the advantages of our victory, General S. considers that they might have been much increased, had Lord W. moved the mass of his force boldly against the French as soon as he ascertained the nature of their position. Such a notion is sufficiently natural to an officer trained in the French school, where the troops seldom make a shining figure except in offensive operations: but we confess our predilection for that.

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course which promises security, and saves the lives of men, leaving to such adventurous commanders as Bonaparte the chance of great gains and great losses. Recent events have sufficiently shewn how dreadful may be the extent of disaster in the event of failure.

One of the most interesting parts of this history is the biographical sketch of Marshal Soult, with which it concludes. He is said to have been born of parents in middling circumstances, and to have entered the army at the age of sixteen as a private soldier. We question, however, the accuracy of this statement, since we find him employed so early as 1792 as adjutant-major in a battalion of national guards. In the next year, he was appointed an officer on the staff in the regular army, and in 1794 he became *chef d'état major* to the division of General Lefèvre in the army of Jourdan : in which situation he continued during four years, and saw much service in a variety of situations. Those military readers who attended to the movements of the army of Jourdan were disposed to give great credit to that division, which regularly formed its van in an advance and its rear in a retreat.

Whoever had seen Lefèvre, and heard him argue on military matters, was amazed that a man of such scanty information could have acquired the great reputation he enjoyed. His division consisted of fifteen thousand men.—In the camp, as on the march, and in the field of battle, this division always preserved the greatest order, was never broken, and almost constantly gained the victory of the day. The troops of Marceau, Championnet, Bernadotte, and other generals, were far from enjoying the same reputation, though their commanders were known to possess talents much superior to those of Lefèvre. Soult was, therefore, universally acknowledged as the author of his general's glory. The cavalry deployed on a field of battle with as much precision as on a parade; and the infantry manœuvred, under a most destructive fire, like Swiss soldiers. Soult superintended every thing; he even carried his attention so far, as to be regularly on the spot when provisions were distributed, that he might be sure of their being good; which attention gained him the esteem of the soldiers. He was equally fearless in reprimanding officers guilty of neglect, as he was ready to express his satisfaction at the conduct of those who manifested their zeal for the service.—I, myself, served with Soult in Lefèvre's division, as adjutant-general, and I was fully enabled to appreciate the merit of either.

Soult was at length appointed a general of brigade: but Lefèvre being unwilling to part with him, caused him to be entrusted with the command of the advanced guard of his division; and Lefèvre having been wounded, Jourdan gave his division to Soult, who commanded it in chief at the battle of Liebingen, on the twenty-sixth of March, 1799. Soult, after his promotion to the

the rank of a general of division, was employed in Switzerland under Masséna, whose right hand he was supposed to be. He followed that general into Italy, and effectually assisted him at the siege of Genoa.'

On the renewal of the war in 1803, Soult was appointed to command the troops at Boulogne, where he remained until the march into Germany in 1805. At Ansterlitz, he had the command (with the rank of Marshal) of the right wing; a situation of great importance, as in that dreadful struggle his part of the line was inferior in force to the allies. He conducted himself, likewise, but too well for his unworthy master in the campaign of 1806, and is said (p. 356.) to have been greatly instrumental in lessening the extent of loss sustained by the French in the sanguinary contest at Jena. It was in Spain, however, that Soult first appeared at the head of a separate army. He commanded in 1808 against Sir John Moore; and, though repulsed by our lamented countryman at Corunna, there can be no doubt that he discovered great judgment in the manner of following up our army, particularly in declining the offered combat at Lugo. In the next year, he took Oporto by a *coup de main*, but was soon driven from it by Sir Arthur Wellesley. At Talavera, the French were commanded by Victor, or rather by Jourdan; and it was the opportune march of Soult to Placentia that obliged our General to forego his advantage, and retreat across the Tagus. On this occasion, however, no particular skill was displayed; nor was the reputation of a veteran army to be increased by the defeat of fifty thousand undisciplined Spaniards in the plains of Ocara.

The Marshal's next exploit was a successful attack, 20th January 1810, on the Spaniards, who were posted with every advantage of ground, in the passes of the Sierra Morena. During the two years that ensued, his station continued to be in the south of Spain. He displayed his accustomed talents in the manner of overthrowing Romana's corps near Badajoz, and in the subsequent capture of that fortress: but all his manœuvres were ineffectual against the firmness of our countrymen in the dreadful conflict at Albuera. When the defeat of Marmont at Salamanca in 1812 threatened the loss of Spain, Bonaparte sent from the heart of Lithuania an order for Soult to take the command in chief of the forces in Spain; and it was on his advance, at the head of a superior army, that Lord Wellington retreated from Burgos: but the year 1813 opened with better prospects for the British in the peninsula, a number of Bonaparte's veteran troops being withdrawn to Germany. On the occurrence of such an emergency,

what could have induced Bonaparte to recall Soult, and allow him to be succeeded by so inferior a commander as Jourdan? The change was probably solicited by King Joseph, but it deserves to be recorded among the greatest errors of his imperial brother. It was too late to reverse this measure after the fatal battle of Vittoria, on the intelligence of which Soult was sent from the centre of Germany to the Pyrenees, and invested with the high sounding title of *Lieutenant de l'Empereur*. His subsequent operations in the Pyrenees, at Bayonne, and at Toulouse, are fresh in the recollection of our readers. His failures afforded no ground of censure to those who could appreciate the talents and force of his opponent: but he committed an extraordinary mistake in consenting to serve last year under Bonaparte; a mistake which we have the greatest difficulty in explaining, when we take into account the calculating habits of Soult, and the intimate knowledge which he must have had of the limited resources of the usurper. During his short ministry under the King, he is understood to have conducted himself with great propriety; and the charge of his having favoured the entrance of Bonaparte is too ridiculous to deserve attention. — General Sarrazin sums up his character in the following words:

‘ Though I have been more than once under the necessity of censuring the operations of Marshal Soult, he was, nevertheless, the general of the French armies who should rank next to Buonaparte and Moreau. He has not a genius for the higher tactics, equal to those two commanders; but he is their superior in the practical application, or execution of manœuvres on the spot. As Buonaparte regretted, in 1809, that he had not Soult with him on the banks of the Danube; so did Soult more than once, in Spain and Portugal, regret that he was not under the immediate directions of Buonaparte.’

To this biographical sketch of Soult are subjoined some remarks by a French officer in the confidence of the Marshal; which supply several appropriate corrections to the author's statements, and afford, occasionally, an anecdote worth remembering with regard to Bonaparte. Soult, it seems, would never take the title of *General Major* to King Joseph, whose interference in military matters he considered as very pernicious; and it farther appears (p. 376.) that, after the retreat of Masséna in 1811, Bonaparte strictly forbade his Marshals to hazard a battle or any enterprize of importance on Portuguese ground.

As to the actual merits of this publication, we must repeat that General Sarrazin's observations, though free from the extravagance of his former works, are frequently precipitate and  
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exaggerated. He could not have access to know all the circumstances in the situation of the Generals whom he censures, (pp. 86. 94. 108. 112. 295. 298.) and he evidently has not reflection enough to supply those that were latent, so as to view a question in all its bearings. If he admits (p. 310.) that Lord Wellington's movements, in the long march through Spain in May and June 1813, were masterly, why should he refuse him a similar share of credit in the battle of Vittoria? Is it not fair to suppose that equal judgment was displayed in both, though the facts might be much more apparent in the one case than in the other? General S. would have done better by endeavouring to account for certain points still involved in obscurity, such as the delay on the part of his Lordship in opening the campaign, which excited considerable surprize at the time, our troops not being put in march from Portugal until the 1st of May 1813. — Altogether, we can scarcely recommend this book in any other light than as a pleasant narrative; since it has by no means a title to be cited as an authentic record, or to be considered as a ground-work for historical conclusions.

ART. V. *An Essay on the Venereal Diseases which have been confounded with Syphilis, and the Symptoms which exclusively arise from that Poison. Illustrated by Drawings of the cutaneous Eruptions of true Syphilis, and the resembling Diseases.* By Richard Carmichael, M. R. I. A. President of the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, and one of the Surgeons to the Lock Hospital, Dublin. 4to. 11. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE immense experience that we have had, for three centuries, of the phænomena of the venereal disease, and the almost innumerable books that have been written on the subject, have not yet removed all the difficulties which attach to it. For a long time, perhaps, no axiom in medicine was more generally received, or appeared to be more firmly established, than that mercury was the remedy for this disease which was intitled to the appellation of specific, and which, except under certain constitutional peculiarities, was constant and regular in its beneficial effect. Whenever any difficulties occurred, they were immediately ascribed to these peculiarities, and this reference was supposed to be sufficient to account for them. As experience was extended, however, and a habit was formed of more correct observation, it was discovered that many symptoms, which were originally ascribed to syphilis, were in reality produced by mercury; and it was often a point of extreme difficulty to discriminate between the  
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operation of the disease and that of the remedy. By degrees; a farther discovery was made; that a set of morbid appearances resembling syphilis sometimes existed when no mercury had been given, and which this remedy had no power of removing.

Since it was assumed, as a fundamental principle, that mercury was a specific for syphilis, and it was now found that certain cases could not be cured by mercury, it followed that these were not syphilitic: but no diagnostic marks were pointed out between these cases and such as were under the controul of mercury. To determine the nature of a disease solely from the operation of remedies is scarcely ever to be admitted as a legitimate mode of reasoning; yet it was adopted by men of eminence, and was gaining ground in public opinion. Still, it must have appeared to every person unsatisfactory, and it afforded no guide for practice; and, consequently, we apprehend, all medical men will feel disposed to lend a favourable ear to Mr. Carmichael, when he professes to shew not only that an obvious and ascertainable distinction subsists in the phænomena of the two diseases, but that, both the symptoms and the remedies being different, the diseases are to be regarded as originating from different morbid poisons, which agree only in the circumstance of their being produced or propagated by sexual intercourse.

Chapter i. is intitled 'Observations on those morbid Poisons which stand in nearest Relation to the Syphilitic, and Evidence of the Existence of Venereal Diseases which do not arise from that Poison.' The facts which are mentioned in this chapter refer to the sivvens, as observed in the south-west of Scotland; to the yaws of the West Indies; to a disease described by Swediaur in Canada; and to a number of complaints occasionally mentioned by the antients, and more particularly noticed by Becket and Astruc. Hunter, in the first instance, and more lately Pearson and Abernethy, have directed their attention particularly to these diseases, which they admit to differ from proper syphilis, but they ground this difference almost entirely on the operation of mercury on them: or, if any farther distinction can be detected, it is to be sought in the history of the progress of the disease, in connection with the effect of this mineral. Mr. Carmichael's object in this introductory chapter is to prove that diseases have existed, from an indefinite period, which are what he calls venereal, yet that they are not the disease that appeared about three centuries ago which was named syphilis, and which is cured by mercury. Hence he infers the probability that, in the present day, these diseases exist, or others that are analogous

gous to them, which resemble each other in their mode of propagation and in the action of mercury on them.

We now come to the description of these diseases and their diagnostic characters; and, in the first place, the author gives an account of the proper syphilis, with the operation of mercury on it. For the description of chancre, or the primary syphilitic ulcer, Mr. Carmichael quotes the words of Hunter, which he considers as perfectly correct, at least when the disease exists on the parts usually affected; and he points out the different appearances which it exhibits in other situations. His remarks seem to be the result of careful observation, and to deserve much confidence. Extensive inflammation does not generally attend the true chancre: but, when this conjunction does occur, a vigorous antiphlogistic treatment is to be employed, together with mercury; by which means the disease is much more easily subdued, and the liability to gangrene is diminished. Some cases are detailed in support of this practice, which prove its efficacy. Mr. C. almost admits the impossibility of distinguishing between syphilitic buboes and those from other causes; yet the following circumstances are said to assist the diagnosis:

‘ Syphilitic buboes have frequently aching pains; in which respect they differ from indolent ulcers of the groin, which seem to maintain themselves by habit. The bottom of the syphilitic bubo, which has not been affected by mercury, has frequently a callous feel, and is either of a dark foul appearance, or of a light brown tawny colour. If an ulcer of this description spreads, we may, with confidence, have recourse to mercury; and we will [*shall*], in most instances, find that quick amendment follows its exhibition.’

With respect to the constitutional effects of syphilis, it is stated that the first symptom is an eruption on the skin; and we are expressly told that it is always scaly, by which circumstance ‘ it may be distinguished from the eruptions of the pseudo-syphilitic diseases, which are either papular, pustular, or tubercular.’ This position is very important: since it would lead to a decisive plan of treatment, and would free us from many of those distressing perplexities which too often occur, if we could place entire confidence in the sagacity and discriminative powers of the author. Our present impression, we confess, is unfavourable to it; and we think that, in his anxiety to establish his principle, he has looked at the phenomena with some degree of prejudice or bias, and has seen only what is favourable to his hypothesis. Yet we make this suggestion with caution, and we do not deem ourselves warranted in decidedly opposing Mr. Carmichael’s statement. — He then proceeds with a train of observations on the other con-

stitutional symptoms of syphilis, viz. ulceration of the throat, and affections of the bones and membranous parts; and next he enters on the second subject of the chapter, the action of mercury. On this point, which has generally been regarded as involved in great obscurity, he gives the most peremptory judgment: 'I am decidedly of opinion,' he says, 'that mercury acts by exciting an irritation capable of superseding that of the syphilitic.' Positive as this opinion is, and unhesitating as is the expression of it, we cannot but ask whether it be a sentiment which conveys to the mind any correct and definite idea, and whether it be not an hypothesis of words rather than of things? What does the term *irritation* mean more than general effect? Is irritation something which is capable of being measured by a scale of quantity; or can any irritation, except that which is produced by mercury, cure proper syphilis? To prove that this is the case is the great object, or at least one of the great objects, of Mr. Carmichael; and we are therefore reduced to the old conclusion that the action of mercury on syphilis is specific, a conclusion which amounts to a direct confession of our ignorance of the subject. Still, if we regard this hypothesis as entirely null and void, we think that many of the observations on the effect of mercury on the system are peculiarly valuable; and, although briefly stated, they are strongly indicative of Mr. C.'s accuracy as an observer of the phenomena of disease. He concludes this chapter with some remarks which we shall quote:

' 1. Mercury induces a specific fever different from all others, and attended with an increase of the various secretions.

' 2. When the constitution has been incessantly harassed by mercury, it induces dropsy, various nervous affections, epilepsy, mania, and fatuity.

' 3. It produces peculiar local effects. A crude wound or suppurating sore, under its influence, will immediately become spreading phagedenic ulcers, of a fiery red appearance. The ulcers of morbid poisons, after the peculiar action of their respective poisons has ceased to act, may become, in the same manner, mercurial ulcers. But if the poison retains its influence in any portion of the ulcer, as soon as the mercurial phagedena has subsided, it may infect the remainder of the ulcer, which will consequently re-assume its original character.

' 4. It occasionally produces pains resembling rheumatism, and swellings of the joints, particularly when the patient exposes himself to cold.

' 5. It is asserted to be capable of producing nodes, which resemble the syphilitic; but this I doubt, because there is no authenticated instance of nodes of the bones occurring under courses of mercury for any diseases except venereal.

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6. It produces two affections of the constitution; the mercurial eruption, and mercurial crethismus, which, unlike its usual and characteristic effects, are evidently owing to some peculiarity of constitution. In the same manner, most medicines, and many of our common aliments, produce phenomena in some constitutions, attended with great disorder of the system, totally different from their accustomed and well known effects.

7. Mercury, and more particularly a mercurial atmosphere, are in the highest degree prejudicial and dangerous to patients labouring under any pulmonary affection, by producing a rapid state of excitement, and consequent effusion into the lungs or chest.

Having now discussed the symptoms and treatment of syphilis, i. e. the disease which is curable by mercury, we proceed to the other venereal complaints; the most remarkable character of which is that they are not curable by this medicine, but which the author conceives to possess sufficient marks of discrimination in their symptoms and progress. These he divides into two classes, each of which forms the subject of a separate chapter. The first class is supposed to consist of four species; 1. superficial ulcers, without induration, but with elevated edges; 2. similar ulcers, without either induration or elevated edges; 3. an excoriation of the glans and prepuce, attended with purulent discharge; and 4. *gonorrhœa virulenta*. No constitutional symptoms have been observed to proceed from the first species: but they have been noticed as connected with the three latter; and we are informed that they 'are precisely alike, and cannot, in the slightest degree, be distinguished from each other.' The fact respecting the nature of these affections, and their essential difference from syphilis, is not a question of mere speculation, but of the highest practical importance, if we are to attach credit to the following statement:

'So common is the occurrence of those ulcers which have not the characteristic marks of chancre, that if I were to estimate their relative frequency from my own experience, I would [should], at the lowest computation, infer, that we meet with five cases of those disorders, for one of true syphilitic chancre, and my opportunities have been such as enabled me to observe, not merely the trivial, but those which would be esteemed the most malignant cases. Nor should I omit that it has frequently happened, that among a number of venereal patients seeking admission into the Westmoreland Lock Hospital, and amounting perhaps to thirty, I have not found a single instance of chancre on the most accurate investigation.'

We shall not be able to follow the author through the details into which he enters: but he describes each of the four species in a manner which impresses us with an idea of accuracy;

racy; and he illustrates his descriptions by a sufficient number of cases which were cured without mercury given internally, and in which, as far as he was able to learn, relapses did not occur. Local washes of corrosive sublimate or calomel were the principal remedies. — It follows obviously, from the general views adopted by the author, that he regards the poison of gonorrhœa as essentially dissimilar from that of syphilis: but, as very high authorities, especially that of Hunter, are on the opposite side of the question, he discusses this point at large, and states the grounds of his own opinion in a series of propositions which are well drawn up, and which, but for their length, we should have been induced to lay before our readers. The injections which he has found almost invariably effectual in the cure of gonorrhœa are (he says) ‘composed of the muriate of mercury and lime-water, in the proportion of from one to three grains of the former to six ounces of the latter. Or of the submuriate of mercury, in the proportion of from ten to twenty grains, suspended, by means of mucilage, in six ounces of lime-water. It may be necessary to add, that I commence with the weaker proportion, and gradually increase it to the stronger, according to circumstances. The syringe, containing about half an ounce, is not discharged more than once at each application, nor oftener than six or eight times in the day.’ The constitutional symptoms of the last three species, which, as we have already observed, are perfectly similar, are thus described: ‘They consist of more or less fever, which ushers in a *papular eruption*, inflammation and soreness of the fauces, attended with difficulty of swallowing, severe pains which affect the head and larger joints, and sometimes inflammatory swellings over the superficial bones, which many would distinguish by the name of nodes.’ The papular eruption, which is the most obvious and characteristic of these symptoms, is then particularly described, and its appearance is illustrated by some well-executed plates. Mercury is not necessary for the cure of these affections, and is generally even prejudicial: when the symptomatic fever is considerable, a copious bleeding is found advantageous, and the treatment is completed by antimony and sarsaparilla.

The second class of primary diseases, which have been confounded with syphilis, contains two species; the phagedænic ulcer, and the sloughing ulcer. The first of these affections is thus described:

‘The phagedenic ulcer, as its name implies, has a corroding appearance, and neither exhibits granulations, or surrounding induration. It spreads sometimes with rapidity, causing the most destructive havoc in the course of a few days; and unlike a chancre, instead

instead of being checked by mercury, it is almost always rendered more inveterate and rapid in its progress by that mineral. It more frequently attacks the glans penis than any other part; but the ulcer usually proceeds to affect the prepuce, which it often entirely consumes, and continuing its depredations on the corona and glans, at last effects their total destruction. When this event takes place, the ulceration usually receives a sudden and permanent check. At other times, a spontaneous hemorrhage, owing to the destruction of the coats of an artery, occasions a favourable change. The hemorrhage from this cause is often so profuse, that I have frequently found the patient's bed-clothes drenched in blood; and in most instances found it necessary to stop the hemorrhage by ligature. It is an occurrence, however, that is in general fortunate to the patient, for in many cases the ulceration is stopped in its progress by this cause alone. More rarely it happens, that notwithstanding every anodyne, and lenient application, the ulceration will gradually proceed, until the entire penis is destroyed. There is also another characteristic of this ulcer worthy of remark, viz. the frequent return of ulceration, after the part has healed, to the very same spot which was at first affected.

This is considered as one of the most unmanageable and fatal of all venereal affections; and the operation of mercury on it is at least uncertain, if not even injurious. Many cases are detailed, for the purpose of exemplifying the effects of this mineral; the general conclusion from which is, 'that the constitutional symptoms usually amend when the patient is slightly affected by mercury; but that when a full mercurial action is induced, not only do the existing symptoms become worse, but the appearance of others renders the case more complicated: yet happily, under these circumstances, the disease will often yield to comparatively milder remedies, such as the simple or compound decoction of sarsaparilla alone, or combined with antimonials, or the compound powder of Ipecacuanha, assisted by the removal of the patient to a purer atmosphere.'

The sloughing ulcer is still more intractable than the phagedænic, less under the controul of medicine, and more rapid in its progress.

'A small black spot that resembles a grain of shot, in colour as well as in size, is its first appearance; which if seen by the experienced eye of a surgeon, even at this early period, will at once be recognized as a slough or mortification extending to some depth below the surface. The slough will continue to increase sometimes to only three or four times its original extent, and at others till it engages a considerable portion of the penis before a line of separation can be observed between the living and mortified parts. When the separation at length takes place, we do not find a clean granulating sore, as occurs in simple mortification; but a corroding

ing phagedenic ulcer, which begins a new kind of depredation on the surrounding parts, equalling the virulence, but not the rapidity of the sloughing process, by which it was preceded.

‘ Suddenly those parts are attacked by severe pain, and afterwards assume a bluish cast, and on the following day they are found to be covered by a slough; and in this way this destructive malady continues to extend its ravages by alternate sloughing and ulceration, until in one sex the entire penis, scrotum, perineum, and pubes are destroyed; and in the other, until the labia, nymphæ, vagina, anus, nates, and I believe even the bladder and uterus are engaged in one extended and malignant putrefaction.’

Mr. C. acknowledges that he is unable to give any very decisive directions for the cure: but he has no hesitation in condemning mercury, even in the smallest doses. Change of air is useful, as also opium and cicuta: but bark is not found to be serviceable; and the prognosis is very unfavourable. We think that Mr. C. very happily applies his principles to the explanation of the facts that were observed in Portugal by Mr. Ferguson, and which we noticed in our Review of the fourth volume of the *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*. (See *Rev. Vol. lxxvii. p. 195.*)

We have now presented our readers with a general view of the principal positions which Mr. Carmichael endeavours to maintain. They appear to be of the first importance, both in a theoretical and a practical point of view; and, were they fully established, they would remove many difficulties, and simplify our treatment of a class of diseases that too often embarrasses the most experienced and skilful members of the profession. It must farther be granted that he seems to have himself a clear conception of his subject, and that he conveys his ideas to others in a plain and explicit manner; so that, after the perusal of his work, we can have no doubt respecting the meaning of every part of it. Whether all the doctrines which he lays down be actually proved, and whether the inference which he draws from his cases be always correct, we do not feel ourselves warranted in granting without reserve. Conclusions so momentous, and so different from those that are generally inferred from the same premises, ought not to be received without the most ample testimony to their truth; and it would require the sanction of many separate and independent practitioners, completely to satisfy the scruples that must exist in every philosophical mind, when it is called to relinquish a set of opinions that have been regarded as incontrovertible.

ART.

ART. VI. *Principles of the Constitution of Governments.* By William Cuninghame, Esq. of Enterkine, North Britain. 4to. pp. 205. Ridgway.

WE have here another candidate for philosophic reputation, from the other side of the Tweed \*; a writer who labours to reduce the study of government to the same plain fundamental principles which have been laid down by other authors with regard to morals, and by Dr. Smith in political economy. Whatever may be thought of the execution, only one opinion can prevail respecting the benevolence of the motive; and, we may add, the propriety of seeking comprehensive conclusions in the direction contemplated by Mr. Cuninghame. Indeed it would be strange and ungrateful in us not to make this allowance, since he appears to have founded his labours on a passage in a former volume of our Review, which he has done us the honour to place as a motto in his title-page. He is certainly not one of those timid reasoners who confine their inquiries to a particular department in the science of government, and are contented to rest their inferences on precedents, in the way in which a lawyer prosecutes his professional studies;—he aims at analyzing this most important subject in its source; and he sets out by acknowledging no other authority for political institutions than the feelings inherent in human nature. His object being so praise-worthy, our readers must forgive us if we appropriate a few paragraphs to what they will consider as a very serious, and, we apprehend, a very dry topic.

In taking a view of the progress of government in antient times, in the middle ages, and in a period more nearly approaching to our own, we cannot but wonder how very seldom the welfare of the people has been allowed to direct, or even to influence, political arrangements. In the pagan world, much as certain constitutions have been eulogized, the inquirer will find rather the rude elements of government than government itself; a defect imprinted in characters unfortunately too lasting in the history of their endless convulsions and revolutions. A similar discrepancy and want of reference to fixed principles are conspicuous in the writings of their political reasoners; the principal of whom, as our readers well know, were Plato and Aristotle. If such were the irregu-

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\* See the account of Mr. Craig's work, in our last Number.—The present volume, however, was long anterior in publication to that of Mr. Craig; though it did not come to our hands till a very considerable time after its appearance, and has since unfortunately been mislaid.



larities of the Greek and Roman governments, what could the well-wisher of mankind reasonably hope from the darkness of the middle ages; when a King was a General, and a crown was the object of contention as a military prize?

Rude, however, as were the views and the usages of our feudal ancestors, they have served for the structure of the Constitutions of most nations in Europe. The consequence has been that "the General Weal" never proved a direct object, but was considered only partially and collaterally; or, in other words, merely to the extent that might be sufficient to induce the people or their representatives to meet the demands of the crown for pecuniary supplies. Such was the origin of the different grants proceeding from our most celebrated kings, — our Edwards and our Henrys. Discussions occasionally took place regarding particular points, such as whether the king derived his power from divine right or from the nation: but no investigators endeavoured to explore, on a broad and comprehensive scale, the fundamental rules and first principles of the science of government. 'Such,' says Mr. C., 'is the object of my inquiry; an inquiry, not now presented to the public in all the extent of the original plan, but guided, as far as it is carried, by an eager solicitude after truth.'

It would much exceed our limits to exhibit any thing in the shape of an analytical view of Mr. C.'s lucubrations; and we could not reasonably hope to impart to them, in the short compass of a critical notice, that interest which they do not possess in the original. His speculations, however, are always guided by an anxiety for the welfare of his species, while his conclusions are generally founded on judicious and comprehensive views of philosophy and history. As a very brief specimen of the spirit and plan of the work, we give a passage from the end of book I.

**CHAP. IV. — THAT LIFE, PROPERTY, AND FREE-AGENCY ARE  
PARAMOUNT TO GOVERNMENT.**

' It appears from the foregoing,

' I. That these rights of Life, Property, and Free-agency, are (with reverence be it spoken) from God.

' II. That being from God, they are insuperable.

' III. That they are more particularly independent of government. Being of an origin superior to man, they can never yield to any thing that is of man.

' IV. That they extend to all equally. The same JUSTICE that gives them at all, gives them universally.

' V. And lastly, That they are natural, that is, given by PROVIDENCE, and consequently most real. Existing antecedent to all things,

things, and consequently preceding every thing artificial, what else can they be?"

Few tasks in the laborious province of literary research are attended with more difficulty than that of giving interest to abstract investigation. Of the mass of readers it may be said, as of the French nation in the outset of the Revolution, that it is impossible to make them all philosophers; — in other words, they are desirous of something more direct and practical, something more nearly allied to their own views and habits, than a series of metaphysical reasonings. It is owing to a want of familiar illustrations, and to too diffuse a style, that the inestimable work of Dr. Smith is so often allowed to lie untouched on the shelves of those who are penetrated with respect for the character of the writer, and disposed to lend their full credence to the justice of his arguments. Unfortunately, Mr. C.'s book falls altogether under this description, and is likely to be read only by the few who intend to write on similar subjects: while our members of parliament, our students of law, and still more our host of miscellaneous readers, will probably lay down his volume, when they discover in it so little that is calculated to entice them to perseverance. Such inquiries, indeed, without the aid of a variety of examples, and a frequent appeal to familiar topics, must prove a severe exercise to the intellect of those who peruse them. One of their first objections in the present case will be the want of any index or table of contents. Could Mr. C. seriously think that, in such a subject, the reader would be carried on, as in a novel, from one chapter to another? Or did he apprehend that a previous display of the heads under discussion might make him deviate in his perusal from the arrangement pursued by the author?

In a dedication to Lord Grenville, the writer alludes to an intimacy with his Lordship "in the days that are past;" — in other words, at the time when these veterans in political inquiry were entering on their university-career with all the hope and confidence of youth. An ill-humoured critic might hint that the dedication was perhaps introduced for the purpose of apprising the world of Mr. C.'s intimacy with so eminent a public character: but we are far from taking this course, or insinuating any doubt of the cordiality of the statesman and the author. Still we cannot help thinking that the former, who figures so much in classic circles, is rather unkind in not dropping his friend a gentle hint of the unfashionableness of such expressions as (p. 12.) 'man's human happiness'; p. 14. 'vindicated merit on this ground,' instead of claiming merit, &c. &c.

ART.

ART. VII. *Authentic Memoirs of the Life of John Sobieski, King of Poland*: illustrative of the inherent Errors in the former Constitution of that Kingdom, which, though arrested for a Time by the Genius of a Hero and a Patriot, gradually paved the Way to its Downfall. By A. T. Palmer. 8vo. pp. 319. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

POLAND has long been an object of interest in Europe, but unfortunately of that interest which is attended by commiseration rather than prompted by envy. It still bears this complexion of character; and at present we see no prospect of its being changed to a gayer or more splendid hue. The history of its varying fate, however, is attractive and instructive to the political reader; and its annals at that epoch, in which its celebrated monarch gave it a brightness of renown now seemingly for ever faded, are more particularly worthy of perusal. We have pleasure, therefore, in being called by the present publication to survey the life and actions of that great General and Ruler.

John Sobieski was born in 1629 of a noble family, and had the benefit of a better education than it fell to the lot of most of his countrymen to obtain. His father, a member of the senate and a diplomatist, took an early opportunity of habituating his son to the perusal of the classics, and to the study of the interests of his country: sending him afterward to travel in foreign countries, particularly in France, at that time the abode of Condé and Turenne, and where Sobieski was enabled to receive those lessons which laid the foundation of his military fame. On returning from his travels, he found Poland a prey to internal discontent, and to the devastating attacks of the Cossacks and Tartars. Opportunities now occurred, therefore, for distinguishing himself in the field; and, in a pacification that ensued, it happened that he was selected as a hostage to remain with the Tartars until his countrymen should fulfil the conditions of the truce: a situation which was at first unpleasant, but which became eventually advantageous by laying a foundation of personal attachment between Sobieski and the Khan. The latter remained accordingly in peace, when the Cossacks and Russians again attacked Poland in 1654; the time at which Smolensko and its neighbourhood, so fatal in our days to the arms of France, first became annexed to the Muscovite dominions.

A more formidable enemy to Poland appeared soon afterward in the person of Charles Gustavus, King of Sweden; who, conducting his troops with much more method than the other rude assailants, found means to penetrate as far as Warsaw. Fortunately for Poland, the court of Denmark was

was induced to take up arms against Sweden; the consequence of which was the relinquishment by Charles Gustavus of his Polish conquests, and the abandonment of his Cossack and Russian allies. The latter, being defeated by Sobieski, made peace, and resigned the chief part of their late acquisitions on the frontier of Lithuania. Sobieski now rose progressively to high political and military rank, first as Grand-Marshal of the crown; next as Lieutenant-General, and finally, in 1667, in his 38th year, as Crown-General, or Commander-in-chief. In the latter capacity, he had soon occasion to contend with a fresh irruption of Cossacks and Tartars, whom he succeeded in defeating with a comparatively small force, by chusing a strong position, and tempting those barbarians to repeated attacks.

In 1669, the feeble Casimir abdicated the crown of Poland, being the last of the dynasty of Jagellon. Sobieski, though of greater personal reputation than any other individual in the kingdom, had not yet acquired the control of the different parties in the state, and was not able to prevent a very absurd choice by the Diet in the person of a young Pole named Michael, who was of good family, but of so little capacity that the party bringing him forwards can scarcely be supposed to have seriously intended his election.

‘ *Ceremonial of the Election.*—When the election of a king of Poland was about to take place, a general diet was convoked by the Archbishop of Gnesna. On the appointed day, the forms of the election were opened by the senate, the deputies, and nobles repairing to the great church of St. John, to petition that Heaven would direct their choice of a king. They then proceeded to the field of election; a plain near Warsaw, on which was erected, for the convenient and safe deliberation of the senate, an immense hall called by the Poles *szopa* \*. This hall had but three entrances, and was surrounded by a broad deep fosse. The deputies and nobles, armed and on horseback, held their session in the open field. Their first proceeding was that of choosing their marshal; who, after binding himself by oath to the faithful discharge of his office, was introduced into the *szopa*, to assist in regulating the most pressing concerns of the state, and redressing grievances complained of. The ambassadors of the several candidates for the throne, and of the princes interested for them, were next admitted, and harangued the senate in Latin on the merits of their different claimants. They were answered on its behalf by the Archbishop of Gnesna, and on that of the deputies and nobles by their marshal. The diet then invoked, on their knees, the assistance of the Holy Ghost to enlighten their understandings, and proceeded to

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\* Signifying a place of shelter.’

the ballot; when, if the voices were found to be unanimous, all went well, and the Archbishop *proclaimed* the King elect, as did the marshals of the crown and Lithuania. But if there were a division in the diet (which generally happened) all became tumult and uproar. The stronger party in the end carried it by violence over the weaker, and compelled the Archbishop, as the price of his safety, to proclaim its favourite. Whatever scenes of bloodshed and disorder might have preceded his compliance, the ceremony always terminated by the whole diet singing *Te Deum*.'

Michael's imbecility gave rise to the formation of intrigues among the nobles for his deposition, in which (p. 57.) his queen concurred, with the curious stipulation that, whoever succeeded to the crown, the same person should espouse her: — but the disunion of the nobles, and some accidental circumstances, defeated the intended change; and Michael remained possessed of the royal dignity during several years. He was the sovereign of Poland when Sobieski marched to Choczim to contend against a numerous army of Turks: a march which, undertaken in the beginning of the winter of 1673, led the troops through a dreary country, and exposed the General to all the murmurs and threats of insurrection common among men who are little habituated to obedience. A considerable part of his army consisted also of Lithuanians; whose General, by a ridiculous compact, was independent of the Commander-in-chief, except at the moment of an engagement. These precarious allies had threatened to withdraw from Sobieski when in sight of the Turkish camp, and were retained only by an appeal to their honour, which was made very adroitly by the Polish chief.

' On the 10th November, Sobieski had prepared every thing for battle; but, instead of immediately beginning the attack, he kept his men inactive, though under arms, the whole of that day and the ensuing night. It was a night of intense severity; snow fell in abundance, and the soldiers suffered dreadfully from the frost: but the example of Sobieski silenced every murmur. He repeatedly visited in person the different posts; and refusing the shelter of a tent, he rested himself on the carriage of a cannon during the remainder of this memorable night, exposed to all the inclemency of the weather.

' At break of day the policy of his conduct became manifest. Much as his troops had suffered by remaining twenty-four hours under arms in such severe weather; the Turks, who were compelled to follow their example in their own defence, had suffered infinitely more. Accustomed to a mild climate, their strength was wholly exhausted by braving the hardships of the night, and subdued nature imperiously required that they should retire and take some repose towards morning.

' As

' As increasing day-light discovered to the watchful Sobieski the thinness of the Ottoman ranks, he turned eagerly to the officers who surrounded him, exclaiming, " This is the moment for which I have been waiting ;—carry my orders for an immediate attack." Then observing that the first brigade, dispirited by their late sufferings, did not show all the promptitude he wished in obeying him, he instantly made his own regiment of dragoons, whom he had himself formed, dismount ; and putting himself at its head, he led the way to the Turkish entrenchments.

' The sight of their revered commander fighting on the ramparts of the enemy, exposed to a heavy fire and supported only by his dragoons, kindled with the quickness of lightning the dormant fire of the Poles. Trembling for the safety of Sobieski, and eager to purchase it with their own lives, they rushed impetuously on the right and left, seized post after post, and in a short time turned the cannon of the enemy against himself.

' The Turks, surprised, bewildered, and pressed on all sides, fell or fled so fast, that the camp, soon covered with the dying and the dead, presented no longer the appearance of a conflict, but that of a complete rout. On one side were seen flying squadrons of the enemy, who, to avoid the pursuing Poles, madly precipitated themselves from a rock, to meet certain death on the crags beneath ; on the other, broken parties of infantry, driven back from the crowded citadel, where they had vainly sought refuge, to expire beneath the sabres of the victors. Multitudes of the cavalry finding their course checked by the destruction of the bridges across the Niester, plunged into the river ; and the small number of these who in defiance of the rapid current, and fire of the Poles, succeeded in reaching the opposite side, sought refuge under the walls of Kamienieck.'

It happened, by a singular coincidence, that Michael died in his bed at the town of Leopol, on the very day on which Sobieski achieved this signal victory. All eyes were now fixed on the popular commander ; and, though the election did not take place till the succeeding spring, it seems little to be doubted that Sobieski had always an ascendancy with the parties who were eventually to decide it. On the meeting of the Diet, he managed with considerable address, coming forwards to recommend the Prince of Condé for the crown, in consideration of those very qualities which it was no difficult matter for his friends to point out in himself. He discovered equal sagacity in baffling (p. 114.) the extraordinary demand made by the Queen-dowager already mentioned ; who, true to her attachment to the crown, had the assurance to urge that he should divorce his own wife and marry her. He had scarcely ascended the throne when he was called again to take the field against the Turks, and again exposed (p. 122.) to considerable hazard from the sickness of his Lithuanian auxili-

auxiliaries. After having overcome this difficulty, he succeeded in giving the Turks a double defeat in the autumn of 1675; and, on returning to his capital, he conducted himself with a degree of discretion that was calculated to attach all parties. The office of Crown-General, which he might, without impropriety, have retained, was given to a relation of the late king; and an attempt made by several of his nobles to procure the degradation of the refractory General of the Lithuanians was discouraged by Sobieski: who thus succeeded in conquering the affections of his former opponent. All this management was necessary to prepare for withstanding a formidable invasion with which the Turks now threatened Poland. In fact, a fresh host, under a more experienced leader, passed the frontier in 1676, and occupied a station which, with the windings of the river Dniester, enabled them almost to surround the Polish camp: but Sobieski fortified his position, repulsed all the desultory attacks of the enemy, and awaited in his camp the arrival of Russian auxiliaries. These, however, did not make their appearance; and the Polish chief, though nowise doubtful of cutting his way through the enemy, seems to have relinquished the idea of signal success by concluding a treaty of peace with Turkey on terms of equality. The most surprising circumstance in this campaign was that the Turks should have at their head a man capable of judicious combination, (Ibrahim *Shaitan*,) and endowed with prudence sufficient to avoid a battle under temptations calculated to raise the hopes of the unthinking and presumptuous.

Poland had now the happiness of enjoying several years of peace; which were employed by Sobieski in promoting the industry of his subjects, and in encouraging, as far as his means permitted, their progress in arts and literature. One of our countrymen, Dr. South, chaplain to the Honourable Lawrence Hyde, (son of the Chancellor Lord Clarendon,) ambassador at the court of Poland, gives a short but explicit account of the monarch's manners and attainments:

“ The King is a very well spoken prince, very easy of access, and extream civil, having most of the qualities requisite to form a complete gentleman. He is not only well versed in military affairs, but likewise, through the means of a French education, very opulently stored with all polite and scholastic learning. Besides his own tongue, the Sclavonian, he understands the Latin, French, Italian, German, and Turkish languages. He delights much in Natural History, and in all parts of physick. He is wont to reprimand the clergy for not admitting the modern philosophy, such as *Le Grand's* and *Cartesius's*, into the universities and schools; and loves to set people about him very artfully by the ears, that by  
their

their disputes, he might be directed, as it happened once or twice during this embassy ; where he shewed a poignancy of wit, on the subject of a dispute held between the Bishop of Posen, and Father de la Motte, (a Jesuit and his Majesty's confessor,) that gave me an extraordinary opinion of his parts."

The same writer supplies an amusing description of the manners of the Court of Poland, as displayed on the occasion of the marriage of one of the Queen's maids of honour :

" The first and second day her Majesty gave a very magnificent feast, for which purpose a large hall was pitched upon, where three large tables were plac'd. At the first sate the King and Queen, in a manner that both fac'd the entrance into the hall. Next the Queen sate the couple that were to be married ; and next to the King the Pope's nuncio and Archbishop of Gnesna, with the foreign ambassadors. At the two other tables, extending the whole length of the hall, were placed the ladies, senators, and officers, except only such as attended upon the King and Queen, all ranked according to their respective precedence.

" This feast began both days precisely at four in the afternoon ; and it was observable that the senators eat very little, but drank *Hungarian wine* to an immoderate degree ; nor did the bishops themselves shew any great symptoms of continence, they leaving their seats very often to go up to the King's table and drink his Majesty's health on their knees. The ladies, out of modesty, only touch'd the top of the glasses with their lips, and so sate them down again, or pour'd them into their plates in such manner, that abundance more wine was spilt than drank by them. When they had sitten about five or six hours at table, the violins and a little sort of portable organ began to strike up, and then they spent the rest of the night in dancing. In this exercise every body join'd ; and even I myself, who have no manner of relish for such unedifying vagarys, had a *madonna* put into my hand by the Bishop of Plosko, (Zaluski the historian,) whom I had the honour, as domestick chaplain to the ambassador from the King of Great Britain, to sit next to. Those who began this whimsical way of shaking the feet, were the most ancient senators and old ladies, who mov'd slowly about like so many fryars and nunns in procession ; yet though the dance began with so much gravity and formality, it was ended with a great deal of hurry and confusion. — On the second day all the guests presented the bride with something new, and none gave less than a piece of plate ; which presents were all made in the presence of the Queen ; it being the custom to perform this ceremony just before they sit down to table. These make a good part of the bride's portion. — On the third day, the espousals were solemniz'd after this manner. All the guests accompanied the bride and bridegroom on horseback to church, as likewise in their way home. Trumpets sounding from the balconies on each side the way ; when the bride was conducted to her husband's house, where a noble entertainment had been prepar'd."



We pass over subordinate matters, and particularly the inquietude caused to Sobieski by the restless temper of his Queen, in order to bring him before our readers as the champion of the cause of Christendom in the deliverance of Vienna. His attention had been fixed, during the year 1681, by the extensive preparations of the Turks; which were discovered, in the following year, to be directed against Austria. They were stimulated by the expected co-operation of the Hungarian malcontents; one of whose leaders, the well-known Tekeli, had taken refuge in Turkey, and flattered himself with being restored to his own country in triumph. Louis XIV., eager to humble Austria, had exerted his utmost efforts to urge the Turks to the invasion, and was not ashamed to set at work a variety of engines in order to divert Sobieski from an alliance with Austria: but all his endeavours were vain; the Poles and their King considered the Turks as their most dangerous enemies, and the present as the moment that was to be decisive of their fate. Sobieski could not, however, succeed in obtaining the concurrence of his nobility without encountering much opposition, and making discoveries of a very unpleasant nature. The particulars of this affair, and of his prudent conduct on a very trying occasion, are mentioned in the following extract:

‘ The King of Poland, as a preliminary step to his obtaining the “ sinews of war,” issued *letters circular* for assembling the diet; when, instead of finding that they were obeyed with the alacrity which the approbation of the several orders of the state to the late treaty with Leopold had prepared him to expect, he learnt that they were received with murmurs of disapprobation. The Lithuanians, in particular, instigated by the artifices of the Pazes, manifested a reluctance to obey the King little short of rebellion, while the Sapiegas, on whom his Majesty had showered riches and honours which rendered them powerful in the duchy, disappointed by their languid obedience and tardy motions the confidence which he had reposed in their fidelity.

‘ A change so sudden and unaccountable in the sentiments of the nation surprised and for a short time embarrassed the King; but he was soon led to suspect that some secret enemy must have been busy in sowing the seeds of disaffection among his people. This idea led to a scrutiny, which soon developed to his Majesty the intrigues that were on the point of depriving Austria of that support which he had with such perfect sincerity promised her; a support not less essential to the future safety of the republic, than to the immediate preservation of the empire.

‘ The discovery of the secret engines which had been set at work was effected by means of an intercepted packet of letters: one of these, written by the ambassador of France to his court, put Sobieski in possession of the clue by which he soon unravelled the

the whole tissue of duplicity in which the affair had been involved.

‘ This letter from the Archbishop Forbin contained a frank avowal that he had been baffled in his attempt to detach the King of Poland from the interest of Austria. It affirmed that he found that monarch equally proof against the power of gold and of ambition, since the seducing offer on the part of France to procure the nomination of Prince James as his successor to the throne had failed to draw him into a breach of faith towards Leopold. He then proceeded to state, that the ill success which had attended his endeavours to corrupt his Majesty had turned his views to the more accessible republic; which had fully answered his expectations, and given him great reason to admire how active an agent the precious metal had proved in the recruiting Polish traitors. He asserted that the grand treasurer Morstin had been seduced by it to disclose to him all the secrets of the cabinet of Warsaw, and that he had found the grand treasurer of the duchy, and the Lithuanian family of Sapieha, not less easy to secure to the interests of France. The loyalty of Jablonowski, he said, he had undermined by dazzling his senses with a distant hope of the crown: while by introducing into the provincial diets distrust, contradiction, and defiance, he had put an effectual stop to the raising the supplies necessary to enable his Majesty to take the field. Such was the French ambassador’s triumphant account to his court of the result of his recent machinations in Poland.’ —

‘ Impatient to communicate to the senate these dark proceedings, Sobieski repaired on its first sitting to the senate-house, and laid before its members his discovery of the conspiracy. Various were the expressions depicted on the countenances of his auditors, while listening to the details — pride and indignation on those of the innocent, shame and confusion on the guilty — while glances of inquiry and suspicion were exchanged on all sides — till the general attention became concentrated in the King, who, with that generous confidence in his friends which was a leading feature in his character, thus addressed the assembly :

“ I know not in what light these intercepted letters may appear to you : for myself, credible as it is that such characters as Morstin may have swallowed the bait offered them, I can never believe that the Sapiehas would barter their honour for dross, nor that Jablonowski would pave his way to the throne by betraying his country and his King. Far more probable does it appear to me, that an ambassador whose schemes must be effected in the dark, and who would shrink from no sacrifice to acquire the favour of his master, should flatter both his sovereign and himself with ideal success; that by one so circumstanced, a doubtful expression, a dubious gesture, should be eagerly seized as a tacit sign of acquiescence in his plots; and that to swell his own importance at his court, he should exaggerate the number of those whom he had really found traitors. In regard to what the ambassador has affirmed of me, no falsehood can be laid to his charge: he has had the temerity to attempt my honour by the offer of his gold, and to

attack the weakness of the father by the promise of securing to my son the crown of Poland. In rejecting his treasure I found no difficulty—the silencing the voice of nature was not so easy. Yet respect for the republic teaches me my duty; and if another Sobieski be destined to ascend the throne, let him rise to it by the free election of his countrymen. Senators, the ambassador of France has dared to represent us as a people lost to honour and to honesty. Let us refute his base aspersions by our faithful adherence to our treaty with the empire—a treaty which you well know was ratified with the approbation of all orders of the state. Every principle of policy and prudence urges us to make common cause against the Ottomans at this moment assembled in arms for the destruction of Vienna, since, should Vienna fall, what is to ensure the safety of Warsaw?"

It is scarcely necessary to add that the result of this judicious and vigorous management was a concurrence of all ranks in support of the alliance with Austria. A treaty was concluded, implying that either party should march to the assistance of the other if attacked; Austria with 60,000 men; Poland with 40,000: but these forces, though considerable in an age of limited population and still more limited means of finance, were materially below the numbers of the host assembled in the plains of Adrianople, and pouring thence on Austria. The Sultan, Mohammed, seated on a lofty throne, made his troops pass there in review before him, with as much parade as the late despot of France when marching to the invasion of Russia: but he committed a woeful mistake in intrusting this splendid army to Kara Mustapha, a leader of a very different character from the one who had opposed Sobieski on the Dniester in 1676. The Austrian force, or, to speak more properly, the portion of force which the embarrassed means of the Emperor allowed him to collect, was commanded by the Duke of Lorraine, an able General; and Vienna found in Count Stalremberg a spirited and active governor. The Turks reached the extensive plain before Vienna in the middle of July, on which the Duke of Lorraine retired behind the Danube, to a spot favourable for watching the motions of the enemy and straitening their communications. Sobieski advanced at first slowly; waiting, week after week, for the arrival of his Lithuanian auxiliaries, until repeated dispatches from the Austrian camp warned him that not a day was to be lost. The garrison of Vienna was suffering under famine and disease; and the Turks had possessed themselves of the principal outworks, and might soon attempt to carry the city by storm. Under these circumstances, Sobieski marched with 20,000 Poles, and effected a junction with the Germans at Tuln, about fifteen miles westward of Vienna. This event took

took place on the 7th of September; and the combined force may be put down as amounting to between 50 and 60,000 men. Sobieski encouraged his officers to disregard the enemy's superiority in numbers, by pointing to the bridge over the Danube, and asking, "Is there a General-officer among you, who, at the head of such a host, would have suffered this bridge to be constructed within five leagues of your camp?" The allies were now on the south side of the river, but had a very difficult march to the Austrian capital, across the hills of Calemberg, over which it was a most laborious effort to drag their artillery:

'While by three days of incessant toil they were performing this essential service, the miseries of the besieged city had reached their acme. Many officers of the first rank and merit had already fallen in its defence, many more were hourly swept off by famine and disease. The cannon now but feebly manned, or dismounted, could no longer return with effect the fire of the enemy; while the progress of the miners, who had already penetrated to the foundation of the imperial palace, kept the surviving inhabitants in hourly dread of perishing by the resistless power of that tremendous engine of destruction. The chief support of the citizens, the intrepid Count Staremborg, whose last billet to the Duke of Lorraine had contained only these expressive words, "No more time to lose, my Lord, no more time to lose!" was himself attacked by the fatal malady which contributed to devastate the capital. Hope seemed absolutely to have expired, when the King of Poland, reaching the heights of Calemberg, gave the renovating signals to the city that succour was at hand.

'While Vienna was obscured from Sobieski's sight by the fire and smoke which enveloped her, the intermediate space exhibited to him a spectacle calculated to fill him with indignant surprise. As if in mockery of the want and desolation to which the Grand Vizier had reduced the late magnificent seat of the western empire, the Ottoman camp, spreading its gaudy pavilions over the vast amphitheatre beneath and the several islands of the Danube, displayed with ostentatious profusion every luxury which art could furnish to gratify the sated senses. The scene rather resembled an Asiatic pageant than a besieging army. Yet while the inquiring eye of the King of Poland, assisted by his telescope, took in its magnitude and splendour, he discerned symptoms of the want of that order, energy, and discipline, which could alone render it formidable to him.' —

'He declared to his Generals that they could gain no honour by defeating the Grand Vizier, so easy would the task be rendered by his manifest ignorance and presumption. —

'Scarcely could Kara Mustapha credit the evidence of his senses, which told him that the united forces of the empire and Poland were approaching to relieve Vienna over mountains which he had till then considered as impassable.

'Stunned

‘ Stunned by this unexpected event, he suffered the night to wear away in perplexity and irresolution : but at sun-rise the following morning (12th of September) he was roused from his stupor by the information that the hostile army had actually begun its descent from the mountains. Immediately quitting his pavilion, he hastened with the vassal princes to a spot favourable for reconnoitring the strength of the enemy ; from whence he perceived, with no very pleasing feelings, the firm and orderly movements of the allies, who marching in close ranks, and preceded by their cannon, stopped at intervals to fire on the advanced parties of the Tartars, and to reload their artillery.

‘ The Grand Vizier at this sight impatiently issued orders for the immediate storming of Vienna by his janizaries, while the remainder of the army should march to oppose the advance of the Christians.’—

‘ An assault made under the influence of such feelings, against a garrison roused to the height of enthusiasm by the near prospect of deliverance, was happily no longer fraught with the same imminent danger to Vienna as must have attended its earlier attempt ; since the besieged, forgetful of hunger and disease, rallied round their posts, and repulsed every effort of the assailants with the most admirable constancy.

‘ In the mean time the King of Poland, ably supported by the German princes, compelled the Ottomans, who attempted to dispute his descent into the plain, to retire with precipitation towards their camp, on the border of which they drew up in line of battle. Sobieski halted for a short time to restore the Christian army to the order which had been deranged by the late contest, and then led it forward to a general attack of the Grand Vizier ; who, as a last resource to renovate the courage of his mussulmen, erected beside a red pavilion in their centre the standard of Mahomet, usually esteemed by them a sacred pledge of victory.

‘ An awful pause succeeded to the moment which placed the hostile armies face to face. It was broken by Sobieski's commanding the Polish cavalry *to charge* ; when, as if animated by one spirit — and that the spirit of their King — they rushed towards the sacred standard which marked the Vizier's station — pierced the lines of the enemy — and with irresistible impetuosity penetrated to the squadrons which encircled the Turkish chief.

‘ While their further advance was for awhile desperately opposed by the spahis, who on that memorable day were the only Ottoman troops who fought bravely, the German princes made a fine attack on the right wing of the enemy, Jablonowski one of equal skill on the left, and the Duke of Lorraine fell on the centre with his wonted firmness and ability ; the King of Poland, who had planned, directing and animating the whole.

‘ The Ottoman army, dispirited, and without confidence in its commander, very feebly sustained the shock of this onset ; while the spahis, seeing themselves unsupported by the janizaries, or the tributary powers who had been so uniformly defeated when opposed

posed to the King of Poland that they seemed to have lost the capability of contending with him—found that their utmost efforts in favour of Kara Mustapha could no further avail, than to allow him time to secure his personal safety by a disgraceful flight.

‘ With the Grand Vizier disappeared the standard of Mahomet; and intelligence of his desertion spreading rapidly from wing to wing of the Turkish army, irretrievable anarchy succeeded. Each individual of that vast multitude, now being actuated solely by the wish of self-preservation, thought only of escape; so that the rout became general; and Vienna was thus, in the space of a few hours, rescued from the merciless grasp of the Turks.’—

‘ On carefully considering the talents exhibited by Sobieski in the relief of Vienna—an action which from its extensive importance is the most celebrated of his life—it becomes obvious that that achievement afforded less field for the exertion of his genius, than almost any other of his glorious career, since the great superiority of the enemy’s numbers was rendered unavailing by the imbecility and cowardice of their commander. The most striking honour reflected on the King of Poland, as a warrior, on that memorable occasion, was the involuntary homage paid him by the terror which his name alone excited throughout the hosts of the Ottomans—a terror which prepared them to become an easier conquest to an army whose inferiority in numerical strength was compensated by the discipline and order of the soldiers, and the zeal and ability of their officers.’—

‘ Sobieski, no doubt, well remembered the mean attempts of Louis XIV., through the intrigues of his ambassador, to prevent him from succouring the empire, when, after having expelled the Turks from Christendom, he wrote a letter of congratulation to that monarch, on an event which he remarked must be peculiarly gratifying to his Majesty, “as the eldest son of the Church.” At the same time he complimented Innocent by sending him the standard (supposed to be that of Mahomet) which had been found near Kara Mustapha’s pavilion,—a trophy which his Holiness deposited with great satisfaction in the chapel of Loretto.’

Nothing could exceed the transport of the Poles on the return of their warlike sovereign, after an exploit which had engaged the attention of all Europe. The Turks soon made Sobieski very flattering offers, on condition of his withdrawing from the alliance: but he was not to be shaken; and he continued hostilities, during the remainder of his days, against a power which he considered to be as dangerous to the independence of his country as his illustrious cotemporary, William, regarded the power of Louis XIV. with respect to England and Holland. Unfortunately, a decline of constitution, the consequence of early wounds, prevented the royal veteran from placing himself in his latter years at the head of his troops. After 1691, he was unable to mount on horse-back,

back, though reluctant to give up his favourite exercise for the effeminate indulgence of a carriage. The evening of his days was also unfortunately embittered by the perverse temper of his queen. His death took place in 1696, in the twenty-second year of his reign, and 67th of his life.

“ Sobieski possessed a fine figure; he was tall and graceful; the nobility and elevation of his soul were depicted in his countenance, his features, and his air.” —

“ The Poles accused Sobieski, as a King, of avarice, because, knowing the true value of wealth, he never lavished it on the worthless: but after as well as before he ascended the throne, he unsparingly employed the fruits of his wise œconomy in administering to the wants of his country. Often as he was undeservedly insulted by his turbulent subjects, not a single act could be adduced by them to prove that he ever exercised the supreme authority to punish his personal injuries.— The warmth of Sobieski's feelings made him prompt to take fire; yet the candour of his generous nature rendered him equally ready to soothe the pain which his impetuosity sometimes inflicted.”

The successor of Sobieski was not one of his own family, but the well known Augustus of Saxony, a prince destined to be dethroned by Sweden and re-instated by Russia.

After this ample abstract of the substance of the narrative before us, it remains for us to make some remarks on the merits of the narrator. Mr. Palmer is not previously known to us as a labourer in the literary vineyard; and he gives, we must admit, sundry proofs of a want of familiarity with composition. He has not been sufficiently accurate in marking dates; and he forgets or chuses to omit a notice of the contents at the beginning either of the volume or of the chapters: but he has properly subjoined a list of the authorities which he principally consulted in the formation of his work. He manifests little sagacity in analyzing the motives of Sobieski's political management; and he uses too much declamation in his panegyrics: for an example of which, the reader needs only turn to the chapter which treats of the relief of Vienna. We cannot, therefore, say much more in praise of this biographer, than that he gives proof of a disposition to veracity and candour; and that a farther effort, maturely executed, may intitle him to a higher station among the writers of lives and memoirs. — Prefixed to the volume is a head of Sobieski, well engraved.

ART.

ART. VIII. *The New Conspiracy against the Jesuits detected and briefly exposed; with a short Account of their Institute; and Observations on the Danger of Systems of Education independent of Religion.* By R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. pp. 400. 9s. Boards. Ridgway. 1815.

IN controversial disputations; whether of a moral, a political, or a religious nature, it almost invariably happens that the arguments on each side are stretched beyond the limits of reason; and that he, whose object is "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," will never attain it by blindly addicting himself to the authority of either party, but must exercise a considerable share of unprejudiced and unbiassed investigation. If a diversity of views and sentiments be not an inherent principle in the moral order of nature, it is at least a necessary consequence of it; and nothing has so great a tendency to give the disputant the advantage over his adversary, as the persuasion and the remembrance that *Veritas*, as well as *Virtus*, *in medio posita est*. For our own part, we never more strongly felt the force of this maxim than after a perusal of the volume before us; and therefore, in presenting to our readers the result of our own examination of it, our principal object shall be to lay aside all party-feelings, and to give a candid and unprejudiced account of its merits and defects, its aim and character.

Some time ago, we had occasion to notice an anonymous pamphlet, intitled, "A brief Account of the Jesuits," on which our observations appeared in the Review for October 1815; and the design of the author of which was to furnish historical proofs of the danger that would accrue to the world in general, and to the United Kingdom in particular, from the revival of that order. Mr. Dallas takes up the cudgels in favour of the Society, and handles them not only with much resolution but with some degree of skill. He states in the preface, that having formerly turned his attention to the interesting subject of promoting the knowledge and practice of religion among the West-Indian negroes, he had discovered that the means, which had hitherto been used for this beneficial purpose, had been owing principally to the labours of the Jesuits; that the conduct of these fathers in South America had inspired him with such sentiments of fervent admiration, that he had found it impossible to give credit to all the horrors which report has attributed to the principles and doctrines of the institution; and that a late residence in France has only tended to confirm his incredulity on this point, and to rivet still more strongly his attachment to an order of men for whom he confesses that he had conceived an early predilection.

Thus



Thus armed, Mr. Dallas proceeds to enter the lists against the author of the "Brief Account of the Jesuits." His first chapter sets out with remarks on the object of his adversary, and 'his mode of conducting his argument : ' in which Mr. D. endeavours to make it appear that the former writer is not in search of the truth, but merely 'a violent and abusive disputant, an enemy to the Catholics in general, and that, the question on their claims being exhausted, he renovates the combat by attacking them through the sides of the Jesuits.' He goes on to charge his opponent, in language rather bold and forcible, not only with having *copied* from Robertson without citing his authority, but with having quoted only so much as suited his purpose, while he wilfully with-held all that tended to controvert his reasoning or to weaken his cause. A considerable degree of discredit is moreover attempted to be thrown on that writer's 'historical proofs,' by shewing that they are only the unsupported imputations of the avowed enemies of the Jesuits, and therefore not intitled to that rank of authority which is justly due to the narrative of unprejudiced historians.

The second chapter, the longest, and perhaps the ablest in the book, is devoted to a comparison of 'the Authorities against the Jesuits, with those in favour of them ;' containing also a notice of the crimes of which the Society has been accused, and purporting to refute the charges. Mr. D. commences his observations on these authorities by an inquiry into those on the testimony of which Robertson founded his account of this religious order ; and he is 'persuaded that, had Robertson written at the present era, his authorities would have been sought in very different sources, and his whole account of the order of Jesus would have been very different from what it is.' The following is the list of the authors and works on whose testimony Robertson is said to have relied : Monclar, Chalotais, D'Alembert, the writer of the *Histoire des Jésuites*, the compilers of the French Encyclopedie, Charlevoix, Juan, and Ulloa. On each of these Mr. D. comments with some ability ; and his object is to shew that their evidence is the less worthy of credit from the circumstance of their having been intimately connected with a party, which had been for some time endeavouring to overthrow the then existing order of things, and to effect a grand political change throughout the several states of Europe. That there may be some truth in this reasoning, we do not deny : that is, that the testimony of avowed enemies and strong partisans is not always to be contemplated as irrefragable proof, nor indeed to be admitted without a considerable degree of vigilance and circumspection : — but too much stress must not be laid on such an argument

as this, or Mr. Dallas will also fail in gaining credit to the testimony which he adduces in contradiction to the authorities that he would seek to refute; since it is obvious that, if the evidence of hostility be inadmissible in support of a charge, that of friendship, and consequently of partiality, must be rejected as in an equal degree inadequate to the refutation of it. In either case, the witness has an object in view: the enemy seeks to maintain, and the friend to defeat, the accusation. This observation may not appear inapplicable, when we come to consider the authorities which Mr. D. cites in favour of his argument. On this occasion, we leave him to speak for himself:

‘ I now return to our authorities. I have anticipated several great names incidentally, while engaged in canvassing those cited against the Jesuits; to these I have now to add the Empress Catherine of Russia; of many popes, Clement XIII. in particular, and the very destroyer of the society, Clement XIV.; M. D’Eguilles, president of the parliament of Thoulouse; the Abbé Proyard, author of a work entitled, *Louis XVI. detroné avant d’être Roi*; Montesquieu, Haller, Muratori, Buffon, Grotius, Leibnitz, Bacon, Frederick the Great, Johnson, Bausset, Richelieu, Raynal, Juan, and Ulloa; with a multitude of historians and biographers, to say nothing of the Jesuit writers themselves. But the most striking testimony in favour of the Society, is a formal judgment given by the bishops of France on certain articles proposed for their examination, by Louis XV., relative to the doctrine, the government, the conduct, and usefulness of the French Jesuits. How any man can withstand such an array of testimony, I am at a loss to conceive; and still more how he can venture, at this time of day, to arm himself with the calumnies and horrors of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, to attack a body of men, and a code of regulations, nowise accountable for the errors and crimes of individuals, at periods when men, in general, were as inveterate on the score of religious doctrines, as they have lately been on that of liberty and equality; when the Catholic and the Huguenot were alike ferocious and cruel, in the maintenance of their respective systems, though they scarcely equalled the fury and the horrors demonstrated by the deists, atheists, and democratical despots, who preceded the settled tyranny, which has been just overthrown by the united force of Europe. The Jesuits were, indeed, the great preachers of the Christian religion, such as it had been received for ages; but they are no more answerable for the opinions on regicide, murder, and other horrid doctrines of former distracted times, than are the Washingtons and Franklins for the atrocities of the Robespierres and Marats in our own days of political insanity.’

From this extract, our readers will at once perceive the hinge on which Mr. Dallas’s arguments are made to turn, and the force which he brings into the field to encounter the armies

mies of his opponent. We recognize, in the very respectable list which he has here given, many names of great weight and distinction: but we cannot indeed think that the testimony of *any man*, or of *any set of men whatever*, is to be deemed equivalent to the evidence of confirmed and indisputable facts. No one can entertain a higher consideration, than we do, for the masculine understanding and acute discernment of Dr. Johnson: but, on a question of this nature, we should be loth to follow him as our guide. Besides that his observations go only so far as to reprobate the *destruction* of the Society, which is distinct from the question of its *revival*, we cannot grant that Johnson viewed the subject unconnected with party-sentiments, or that he brought to it a mind wholly divested of prejudice. The testimony of Montesquieu, also, we regard as at best but partial and incomplete; since his commendation appears to have resulted from a view of the numerous horrors which the Society had attempted to assuage, and perhaps had in reality assuaged, in a barbarous country and among a nation of savages. "It is glorious to the Society," says Montesquieu, (speaking of the Jesuit-missions to South America,) "to have been the first to give, in those happy regions, the idea of religion united with humanity. By repairing the devastations of the Spaniards, they have begun to heal one of the most dangerous wounds the human race ever received. They have drawn wild people from woods, secured them regular maintenance, and clothed their nakedness: but even had they done no more than add to the stock of industry among mankind, that would have been doing a great deal." This may be all perfectly true: but it is wholly insufficient to establish Mr. Dallas's argument. For that purpose, it will be necessary to prove that the Institution in question has been beneficial, not *to barbarous*, but to *enlightened* nations; and that, if it has repressed horrors, it has also never been the cause of them. It is a small eulogy indeed to affirm of it that it has done good to the savages of Paraguay; and many other institutions, of at least a very questionable tendency, might be intitled to the same qualified degree of approbation. Has it, on the whole, proved beneficial or injurious to the several states of Europe? Has *the world in general* derived good or evil from it? These are the questions to be determined. Even if Mr. Dallas should succeed in convincing his readers on this point, (which, we confess, is not yet the case with ourselves,) still it will remain for him to prove, in order to obtain an entire victory, that the Society is so complete,—so positively perfect in its principles, in its doctrines, its regulations, and its restraints,—that no other

other religious establishment is capable of producing a greater degree of benefit.

The fact we apprehend to be that it is much more difficult to make out a strong case in favour of the Jesuits, than to furnish satisfactory evidence against them. The institution was founded in an age distinguished by religious zeal, rather than by propriety of moral conduct; and famed for the blind devotedness of enthusiasm and bigotry, rather than for any enlightened liberality of action or of sentiment. When the authority of the Romish church had received a severe blow by the secession of many of the most powerful nations of Europe, it was natural that she should cling to a Society which promised her both strength and augmentation, by supporting her tottering pillars at home and gaining proselytes for her abroad. With the decreasing influence of that church, and moreover with the increasing civilization of Europe and the world, the Society gradually declined both in the number of its members and the extent of its power; until that same authority, which once expected to find in it a firm supporter and a faithful friend, judged it right to decree its suppression. We forbear to draw the inference, which we think must be sufficiently evident from facts like these; and we forbear also to proceed to mention the horrors of the Inquisition, or to enter on the history of the many odious political intrigues, of which the Society has been accused as either the mediate or the immediate cause.

It is due, however, to the abilities of Mr. Dallas to acknowledge that, while we remain unconvinced on the above points, his subsequent chapters seem to prove that the picture, which his adversary has drawn, is (as we ventured to predict) highly overcharged. The letters of *Clericus*, the original answer to the "Brief Account," which we find inserted in the Appendix, contain a refutation of the *Secreta Monita*, or Secret Instructions of the Order, and prove them to be not only unauthenticated but positively spurious. They likewise repel the imputation, which has been urged against the original founders of the Society, of having been actuated in that instance by sinister motives; and of having framed their institution on the principle "that the end justifies the means, and that it is lawful to do evil that good may come."

On the whole, though we have not found, in Mr. Dallas's book, any argument sufficiently conclusive to induce us to alter our sentiments on the principal question of which it treats, yet in many cases he has shewn himself superior to his opponent; that is, superior in natural strength, and weak only from (as we think) the weakness of his cause. We have

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perused his work with satisfaction, and have listened to his arguments with deference; and we should not be able, if we were willing, to withhold from him the praise which, in any case, belong to a zealous and able advocate.

With regard to the revival of so mighty an engine of power as the Society of the Jesuits, and so questionable a system of policy as that by which they were regulated, we still are disposed to adhere to our opinion that it is the interest, as well as the duty, of the several governments of Europe to exercise on this, as on every other subject of equal importance, a considerable degree of attention and vigilance:—but we cannot go so far as to consider that the time is yet arrived which calls for the actual interference of the legislature.

ART. IX. *A Voyage to Cadix and Gibraltar, up the Mediterranean to Sicily and Malta, in 1810 and 1811, including a Description of Sicily and the Lipari Islands, and an Excursion in Portugal, by Lieutenant-General Cockburn. 2 Vols. Demy 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d.; Royal 8vo. 3l. 15s. Boards. Harding. 1815.*

CADIZ and Gibraltar are, in a political point of view, stations of the highest interest: but they have been so frequently and fully described by our countrymen, that the endeavour to renew the exhibition of the picture may be classed among those works of supererogation which, to say the least, have scarcely any title to the merit of utility. The comparative proximity of those places to our own shores renders them, generally speaking, easy of access even to those who are not very deeply imbued with a travelling taste: they have therefore been often visited from pleasure, and often from necessity; and certainly nothing can be conceived more striking, or more magnificent, than the first entrance into the Straights of Gibraltar. We speak from personal knowledge when we say that the rival mountains of Africa and Europe, vying with each other in grandeur and sublimity, — the singular appearance of the almost insulated rock jutting out into the sea, — the narrow passage at the entrance, giving the idea of the waters of the Atlantic having forced their way in spite of every obstacle which nature opposed to them, — and all enlivened by a brilliant sun, and a tint of colouring peculiar to southern latitudes, — constitute a panorama of unequalled scenery, of which it is difficult to form any just idea but from actual inspection. Delighted, however, as the mind is by such an assemblage of pleasing objects of contemplation, and unsatiated as it remains after a continued admiration of the picture, still the man of letters finds it difficult to divest himself of the impression that he

he is not yet on classic ground. He sees around him nature in some of her most imposing and majestic attitudes, but he nowhere reads the history of his fellow-men:—he is not reminded, by any vestiges of art or science, which time has elsewhere so mercifully spared to him, of the pristine greatness of the Grecian or the Roman name. When, therefore, the eye withdraws itself from the grand outline of the landscape to explore the interior attractions of the place, Gibraltar and Cadiz sink down to the humble level of a military station and a commercial port.

The case is wholly different as we advance farther into the Mediterranean; when we contemplate, on either side, the shores of Carthage, Rome, Sicily, and Egypt, and seem to attain something like an accurate insight into the manners, customs, and characters of nations, of which we had before only an ideal and visionary conception. It was with pleasure, on this account, that we perceived that the island of Sicily, which was the chief destination of General Cockburn as a military commander, was the principal object of his investigation as a traveller; and consequently that the description of it occupies the greater portion of the volumes before us. Sicily, so interesting from its situation, its soil, its climate, its antient and even its modern history, — Sicily, the nurse and granary of Italy, which it seems to rival in the productions of nature, and sometimes surpasses in those of art, — can never cease to possess the strongest claims to the attention and researches of every lover of classical remains. Though the field has already yielded an abundant harvest, we know not that the soil can yet be said to be entirely exhausted. The hurried negligence of Swinburne, who appears to have passed over these interesting shores in a manner unworthy of the professed tourist, — and the affected style of Brydone, his frequent inaccuracies, and the large mass of irrelevant matter with which his pages are filled, — appear to have left room for the well-digested narrative of an impartial and enlightened traveller.\*

Of these his precursors on Sicilian ground, it seems to have been the design of General Cockburn to avoid all the errors and supply all the defects. After some censures on their principal failings, he proceeds to state the scope and intention of his own publication; and here he tells us that ‘the present work is intended as a *guide de voyageur*, to point out the objects most worthy the attention of future visitors; I do not profess to do more.’ It is for us, therefore, to consider

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\* Of Mr. Blaquiere's more recent work, we gave an ample account in our lxxiii<sup>d</sup> Vol. N. S. p. 38.

whether the author, who has thus limited his design to so humble though certainly very useful a province, has acted in conformity with his original plan; and it becomes a question, which we shall endeavour to determine with the strictest impartiality, whether, since he purposes to write expressly for the sake of the traveller, he has always, or even generally, kept in view that personage's interest and convenience: or whether he has carried into practice his profession of 'doing no more than point out the objects most worthy the attention of future visitors,' by never condescending to point out those which must be considered as wholly *unworthy* of it. Now, regarding the work as intended for a portable guide, the mere size of it is a very considerable objection: since the traveller in Sicily is continually exposed to the greatest difficulty in obtaining the means of conveying himself and his baggage from place to place. At one time, he is found embarking on board a perilous boat, or *scampavia*; at another, he is persuaded to intrust his security to the back of a mule and the faithful conduct of a Sicilian guide:—sometimes he is seen walking; at others, riding;—in short he is placed in every possible variety of situation and circumstance. It is obvious, therefore, that a book aiming only at his information and convenience ought not to have exceeded the bulk of a commodious pocket-companion; and that it must require a great share of intrinsic merit, and solid utility, to redeem the author's sin of having suffered it to grow into the magnitude of two large octavos. The size, moreover, naturally regulates the price; and this, we are much afraid, will be found disproportionate to the real value of its contents. It might be imagined that General C. had imbibed the erroneous idea, so common among foreigners, that an English traveller is synonymous with a man of fortune; and had forgotten that, of those who are unable to travel abroad, and to whom the descriptive accounts of others are therefore of the greater importance, some few prefer substantial merit to superficial attractions. The volumes before us are very handsomely enriched by a large collection (thirty-three in number) of coloured engravings, ably and accurately executed: but we know not that this ornamental addition can be considered as a proof of the author's uniformity of design, if it be not strong evidence of a wide deviation from it. The guidance of travellers surely could not have been, in this instance, his sole or even his principal object; since they, it is manifest, would stand less in need of such representations than any other purchasers of the volumes: they need not a copy while they are viewing the original.

The same want of adherence to his original intention is strongly perceptible throughout the author's work. The style

in which it is written, we think, 'is by no means judicious: since a daily journal of the most trifling and unimportant events, which faithfully records the minutest variation of wind and weather, and every transaction, accident, or contingency of a sea-voyage, must necessarily contain a variety of matter which, though interesting to relations and friends, may chance to be read with indifference by the world in general, and certainly will be considered as entirely useless to the traveller. So precise and circumstantial is the record of each day's occurrences, that it seems as if the author wrote under the impression that the traveller who might follow him would tread precisely in his steps, and be subject to the same circumstances. Witness the following journal of four days:

' The east wind served well enough to clear the Bay; but after doubling Europa Point, we had only the current in our favour. We were all hurried and disappointed by this sudden, and, as we thought, unnecessary order: Apes-hill and the top of the Rock are covered with clouds, a sure indication that this Levanter will continue. The heat was also very great, and we made very little way. We had a good view of the back of the Rock, and soon after of Ceuta.

' 17th. — The same weather continues, and we make little or no progress: it would have been better to have remained at Gibraltar till we had fair wind. The Admiral is an addition to our society, and appears a most good humoured and worthy man. It seems he has a rage for always putting to sea, if there is any possibility, not minding wind or weather; and I am told, has often left some of his officers behind, who did not get on board in time. I confess, I wish he had not shifted his flag for twenty-four hours more, we might then have gratified our curiosity at Gibraltar. At noon, we spoke a Spanish tartan, and in the evening, H. M. S. *Comus*, from Algiers for Lisbon. The Captain would have come on board the *Lively*, but as he came from Algiers, we begged to be excused; his visit would subject us to quarantine on our arrival, though we are likely to have a very sufficient one at sea. Barometer this day at 30. Thermometer 75.

' 18th. — We have now been three days at sea, and have not made more way than we should have done with six hours fair wind.

' 19th. — The marines fired ball at a mark this morning. — We see the Spanish mountains plainly, they appear very high, and have a great deal of snow on them. Last night the wind came fair, but there was very little of it. We have one or two bad sailing ships in the convoy, and are therefore obliged to lie to for them four hours every day. In the afternoon, off Cape de Gat. — As I was looking over the ship's side, my hat fell overboard, and was carried a great distance by the current; they hoisted a boat out as an exercise; and after a very hard row, my hat was recovered. This occasioned some laughter with the seamen; as it seems there



is an old sea song, which begins "*Off Cape de Gat, I lost my hat,*" &c.

' Very close warm weather, though the ports are open in the cabin all night, still I am oppressed by the heat.

' 20th. — One of the convoy made the signal for an enemy. We hoisted every sail, and stood towards her : it turned out to be one of those small privateers, that both sail with lateens, and row, which infest the Mediterranean. As they make off the moment a man of war stands towards them, they are seldom taken. These privateers are full of men, and hover about, following a convoy as a shark sometimes does a ship, in hopes of picking up some straggler.'

From the charge of egotism, the General defends himself by stating that the first person is almost essential to the style of a journal, and the authority of Dr. Knox is adduced to confirm this opinion. We are ready to concede this point, and to attribute some little venial failings on this head, according to his wish, ' to inattention rather than vanity : ' but we could have forgiven with much greater readiness all these imperfections, on the ground that a degree of ambition is common to all travellers which is often praiseworthy and always excusable, if we had not been doomed to contend with a large proportion of frivolity, and of nugatory or puerile observations. — These preliminary remarks will be sufficient to indicate our opinion of the principal defects of the publication ; and it was necessary to notice them before we proceeded to accompany the author in his most pleasing excursion.

General Cockburn was appointed to the staff of the English army in Sicily in the year 1810. Having first touched at Cadiz and Gibraltar, and subsequently shared the singular fortune of St. Paul in being shipwrecked in the bay of Malta, he arrived in safety at Messina, at that most critical and interesting moment when the island was threatened with invasion from the French armies on the opposite coast ; and inexplicably mysterious are some parts of the General's account of this curious campaign. He allots a considerable number of pages, in this division of the work, to a detail of the military and naval manœuvres of the contending parties ; and, though all this is entirely extraneous matter in a book purporting to be a *guide de voyageur* and ' *no more,*' it forms a very interesting part of the performance. Indeed, the author appears more in his proper station when describing the operations of a campaign, than in the dress, which does not sit particularly well on him, of an antiquary or a philosopher. — It is stated that, on the night of the 17th of September, or early in the morning of the 18th, the French landed a force of 3,000 men, commanded by General Cavagniac, and surprized us. The

line of defence was under the direction of Lieutenant-General Lord Forbes, who made a point of visiting some part of it almost every night: but on this night, as fate decreed, his Lordship received no intimation of the landing, until some time after the inferior officers were out, and on duty: the alarm-guns, which had been so constantly fired on other occasions, when neither enemy nor danger threatened, being now wholly silent. The consequence was, that the greater part of the force was enabled to re-embark; and, as the French had been so complaisant as to expose a body of their army to this peril, the English, not to be outdone in politeness, returned the compliment by suffering their invaders to retire in tranquillity to the opposite shore, without offering them the least molestation, in face of eleven men of war, and a proportionate flotilla of gun-boats! — General Cockburn expatiates at considerable length on the several features and extraordinary events of this campaign; and his readers will hence be able to gather some useful and judicious reflections, and some pieces of information which, as coming from an eye-witness of the scene, are replete with interest and amusement. Before the month of November, we find the French armies breaking up from their encampment in Calabria, and, in the course of a week, they had entirely abandoned their position. During the interval between this time and the author's accession to the rank of Lieutenant-General, (when he became unemployed,) his journal begins to deteriorate; the materials for it being chiefly furnished by some few trivial excursions in the neighbourhood of Messina, or some miscellaneous and unconnected observations on the manners and habits of the Sicilians. We rejoiced, therefore, when the promotion left him at liberty to set out on his tour: — but, before we accompany him, we cannot refrain from giving our readers his description of Messina, which is written in a better style than the generality of the work. We have also a very beautiful representation of the town and harbour in a coloured plate on the opposite page, which we should be glad to copy with the text.

' I cannot too often repeat the beauty of the country round Messina, which is never better enjoyed than from on board a man of war, one mile from shore. To behold this city from the sea, its beautiful harbour, the winding Straights extending for miles from the Faro to St. Placido, its several capes and promontories; the chains of mountains behind Messina, of most irregular forms; forts Gonzago and Castellacia, with Antena Mara, (next in height to *Ætna*,) crowning the whole: in short, an assemblage of mountains, water, and orange groves, with a fine city, convents, and villages, all comprized in one view, that cannot be surpassed; but, as the

sun declines, and strikes on Calabria, new and rich tints with different shades appear. The wild sublimity of those mountains, the light which at this time displays the distant forests, with range behind range of all forms and shapes, constitute a scene at once magnificent, beautiful, and sublime.

We could, indeed, wish that all had been like this passage, simple, accurate, and pertinent: but it is painful, afterward, to find the author still harping on 'the weather,' and the 'contrary winds,' and 'the thermometer in the shade,' and 'a frigate which passed by the Faro in the evening, but was not fired at,' and 'the thunder, lightning, and rain, which on the 26th continued with great violence all day.' On the 7th of November, '*at last the wind was fair;*' and the author embarked in company with Major Coglan, Lieut. Sweeney, an orderly dragoon, and one Pascale, an important personage, (being, we are told, '*a first-rate cook,*') on board a gun-boat, and set sail for Catania; where the party arrived in safety in the short space of twenty-four hours. The beautiful situation of Catania exceeds description: a fine, well-built city, close on the sea-shore, overshadowed by the gigantic majesty of *Ætna*, and encompassed by the several minor volcanic hills, which appear like so many branches arising from the parent stock, — the placid brilliancy of the sea-view in front, — and the solemnity of the inland scenery behind, — contributing to form as magnificent a prospect as any part of the island can supply. Early on the next morning after their arrival, the writer set out on his expedition towards *Ætna*: the weather being clear, but the season later than the usual or convenient period for such excursions. General C.'s account of the ascent is written certainly with the pride of an enthusiastic traveller, and, it is but fair to say, exhibits a greater portion of egotism than the rest of the work. Let our readers make their own observations on it:

'The ascent of *Ætna* is, at this time of the year, difficult and hazardous; and our Nicolosi guide was even doubtful if we could get to the top in day-light, and much less would he attempt it in this season at night. Mr. Jemelara, in his letter to me, expressed his opinion, that it would be extremely difficult: I am, however, certain, that, by waiting for a favourable day, it may, by great exertions, be accomplished in the beginning of December. It is true several parties attempted it, and failed last month; but the weather was very bad: the high winds on *Ætna*, even in summer, also increase the difficulty. The fact is, no one should set out from Catania, or particularly from Nicolosi, in winter, but in settled fine weather; and certainly, it may be set down as impracticable from the 1st of November to the 1st of May, in nine years out of ten, except for very strong, robust, persevering men. On arriving at the

the foot of the cone of the great crater, having rode the last three miles through snow, we found Jemelara's house buried in it, just enough of the top visible to shew there was a house there; breakfast was therefore out of the question: it was impossible to ride farther, so here we left the mules, and proceeded on foot for a mile through snow and over slippery rocks of lava. There are enormous masses of lava, and the space between them, in many parts, so deep that, summer or winter, you must make a long step from one to the other; in other parts we often sunk to our middles in snow.—My perseverance was almost conquered: the Major, at the outset from Jemelara's, said he would not attempt it: but we persuaded him to come on, and, with the assistance of the guide, and his own strength, he gained the top. It would be utterly impossible for a lady to accomplish this at the present time of the year; and, if any accident should befall a traveller, such as breaking a leg or arm, which, from the deceitful path over the snow and through rocks of lava, is not impossible, I really think he must perish; for how could he be moved? We, at last, got over this terrible passage, and arrived at the bottom of the steep cone. This part is all covered with loose ashes and cinders, but, from the heat of the volcano, there is no snow at present, though, in December and January, it is covered to within a yard or two of the mouth of the crater. Here the difficulty of ascending, and the labour and fatigue, are very great. The air is so pure and rarefied that it affects the lungs, and we lost our breath every five minutes. We were obliged often to scramble on all fours, slipping down frequently many feet in the loose ashes, so very steep is the latter part. The old Nicolosi guide, who shewed the way, was first up; and, as there is a point a little higher, I did not know we had got to the principal summit, till I heard him cry out, "O que Bella Vista!" this he did by design, bringing us suddenly in view of the crater at a moment we thought we had at least ten minutes more labour to undergo: I was the first of our party up, and gave three cheers. The sudden view of this immense gulph is terrific at first, and really past description. The day was most favourable, except rather too much wind, which, however, blew from the crater. We were now amply repaid for the labour and the delays of bad weather, and saw most distinctly to the bottom of this wonderful and immense crater, which contains several minor mountains, and their craters within it; some smoking like the most violent glass-house, or steam-works. The ground was here very hot: I had heard much of the coldness of the air, but thought nothing of it, though possibly a person below in the snow, if not in exercise, might be frozen; only my hands were cold, and, except for the wind, I should certainly have found it warm enough; violent as the exercise was, I did not suffer from heat or perspiration, which, with the state of the thermometer, proves the coldness of the air: I was obliged to leave my great coat at Jemelara's.

From Catania to Siragusa, where the travellers arrived in the night of the 18th, the passage is easily effected in a day.

This

This city, the antient Syracuse, once the celebrated capital of the island, is said to have been originally founded by a colony of Corinthians, was formerly of a triangular shape, and consisted of four parts or districts. It had also two ports, a greater and a less, divided from each other by the small island of Ortygia; the lesser port was formed by the southern part of the city and the northern side of the island; the greater, by the southern side of the island, and a bay extending from the promontory of Plemmyrium, now called *Massa Oliveri*. The four districts of the city were termed, 1. Ortygia, where the Greeks settled after their expulsion of the Sicilians; 2. Acradina, on the sea-shore; 3. Tyche, which joined Acradina on the eastern side; 4. Neapolis, or the new city, beyond: to which some have added Epipolæ, the most northern part of the city, as a fifth district.

The once celebrated fountain of Arethusa, situated in the island of Ortygia, was the first object which here excited the attention of the travellers: but this classic stream is now become nothing better than a pool of very brackish water, or, in the language of General Cockburn, '*a mere washing-place.*' The comparison between its former renown and its present degradation, and the contrast between its visitors in "olden times" and those of our own days, — viz. the antient Muses, and the modern washerwomen of Sicily, — produce from the writer some elaborate ironical observations, and some attempts at wit, which would be well replaced by a small portion of rationality. We have the authority of Cicero for believing that this fountain formerly sent forth a very clear and copious stream, abounding with fish of different kinds; and it appears singular that it should not only have lost these its inhabitants, but also have exchanged the sweetness and purity of its waters for their present opposite qualities. Is it that the different earthquakes, by which the whole island has been so repeatedly convulsed, have at length broken asunder the rocks whence the fountain issued? Or have the waves of the sea forced a passage into the stream, and mingled themselves with its waters? General Cockburn, to our great surprize, is silent on these points.

Of the antient temple of Minerva, which is at present converted into a Christian church, scarcely a vestige remains; with the exception of the old rude columns, which are still seen intermingled with the modern walls. The same also has been the fate of the celebrated temple of Jupiter Olympius, the statue in which, having first been plundered of its golden cloak by Dionysius the Tyrant, became subsequently devoted to the sacrilegious rapacity of the Roman prætor.

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The Ear of Dionysius, the Theatres, and the Catacombs, are all interesting objects of investigation. Of the former, the author gives only a succinct account; which, on comparison with the narratives, lying on our table, of Brydone and Swinburne, we cannot but consider as a trifling addition to our previous stock of information:

‘ This famous Ear, of which the Antiquarians say so much, and tell so many fairy tales, is nothing more than a large excavation in the rock or quarry, from whence stones, for the different buildings, were taken; but its situation is romantic and pretty: the echo is very great when they fire a small paterero: near this is a very great quarry, with a fine fountain in it: they call it Dionysius’s Hall: there is also a cave, where they make salt-petre, and a rope-walk: several orange trees are interspersed about; and the harmless lizard sports and basks in the sun every pace we go. Near this is the theatre, but little remains of it: the Greek names on the several *Cunei* have puzzled the antiquarians much; but I think Colonel Donkin, our Quarter-Master-General, has explained them: he thinks these inscriptions were probably the names of the several *Cunei*; for the ancients named all their apartments; and, in fact, in our own theatres we say, the King’s Side, the Prince’s Side, the Side Boxes, the Front Boxes, the Lattices, the Stage Boxes, &c. &c. These Greek names cannot be those of Kings or Queens who built the theatre, nor of the proprietors of boxes, as many have thought: no author tells that Olympian Jove either built or frequented a theatre. These remarks, the result of Colonel Donkin’s consideration, appear to me so clear and correct, that I note them. He is an excellent Greek scholar, and he spent an entire day in examining the ruins of the theatre: there are steps between the *Cunei*, which, as well as the seats, are all cut out of the rock: no part or trace remains of the walls.’

Of the amphitheatre, the greater part remains under ground, though enough of it may be discovered to give a vague idea of the original enormity of its extent. On examining the modern fortifications of the town, General Cockburn pronounces it to be extremely strong, particularly on the land-side. Near the church of St. John is the entrance to the Catacombs, which are large subterraneous vaults cut through the soft stone underneath the city, and crossing each other in opposite directions. They are similar in appearance to those of Naples, and are used for similar purposes, but are neither so large nor so regularly cut. Those at Rome are much more extensive than either. Many human skeletons are said to have been found in these gloomy caverns, with old and valuable coins inserted in their mouths, by which the great antiquity of the place has been put beyond all doubt.

Besides these, are other subterraneous excavations called Latomies, said to have been executed by order of Dionysius, and

and used by him for the confinement of criminals. They have subsequently been converted into places of burial, and have been planted not only with sepulchral trees, (as the cypress and willow,) but with the more refreshing orange, lemon, pomegranate, mulberry, and other flowering shrubs and fruit-trees. The descent into the principal Latomy, situated beneath a Capuchin convent, is particularly striking: the sudden change from the clear and vivid sky of Sicily to the shade and coolness of a sepulchral grove, the contrast between the bustle of the noisy populace and the perfect silence of the last resting-place of mortality, presenting as singular and sudden a change of sensation and idea as the mind can well conceive or the feelings experience.

On quitting Siragusa, we were somewhat surprized, and not a little disconcerted, at finding ourselves reluctantly conducted the whole way back again to Catania, and subsequently to Messina; whence it was so difficult before to make our escape, on account of the contrary winds and weather, that we were almost in despair at finding ourselves obliged a second time to encounter the danger of similar inconveniences. We trust that the travellers, for whose instruction the work is written, will not in this instance imitate the example of their prototype. This retro-gradation is indeed the greater blemish, because it not only leads to much repetition, but obliges the author to fill up his journal by the insertion of too many trifling and futile remarks. We shall give a few of the best specimens of this jejune style of writing:

‘ I went to breakfast with Major Smenstein, and afterwards embarked in a scampavia from the north side of the Peninsula, on which Augusta is built; having ordered the gun-boat round early this morning from the harbour on the south side. We had a pleasant passage, mostly by the oars, (there being little wind,) to Catania, and arrived there about nine o'clock, P. M. The Sicilian mariners always sing a hymn to some saint, while rowing; I have heard them sing that which we call the Sicilian Mariner's Hymn, and therefore I rather think it is a true Sicilian tune, though it has been denied. Most of these sailors are employed merely for coast, and would be frightened at a gale of wind, though some make voyages across to Malta: they are an innocent, harmless, hard-working people, and never get drunk, make difficulties, nor ask for money;—how different from the Irish or English! The thermometer this day (at sea) sixty-seven degrees, and very hot. On the coast, between Augusta and Catania, is a large castle and tower of great antiquity: we landed to see it, and went to our old quarters at the Lion d'Oro at Catania.’—

‘ We remained a week in Catania this second visit; and, as before, received every attention from M. Paterno: we dined one day with him, and he gave us a very splendid entertainment. The Sicilians,

cilians, in general, dine at two o'clock, which, being in the greatest heat of the day, is very disagreeable; but ice, and iced water, keep people alive.

We must decline to follow the author's steps very minutely in this part of his course. Suffice it to say that we are conducted, *in process of time*, to the Lipari islands; and that, after an agreeable sojourn there of a few weeks, we find ourselves at last in full view of the beautiful and exquisite bay of Palermo.

Palermo is justly the capital, being, in all respects, far superior to any town in Sicily, indeed equal to any of the best towns in Europe: for beauty of situation it yields to none; and in the richness and magnificence of its churches is certainly next to Rome. The streets, as in all Sicilian towns, are admirably well paved, or rather flagged. Palermo is also kept very clean. The port is full of shipping. There is scarcely a house that has not something striking in its architecture, and a number of marble columns, either in front or in the court-yards; for every great palace has a large court-yard, with a piazza and columns of marble. The principal street, called the Cassaro, runs from the Marino to the palace, and is a mile in length; it is crowded with people, who seem to be in full employment: at each end are two of the beautiful gate-ways, viz. the Porta Felice next the Marino, and the Porta Nova at the other extremity. The nobility and gentry drive in their carriages every afternoon along the Cassaro and Marino, and the people walk along the latter. In the Summer time, I am told it is as full as Hyde-Park or Kensington-Gardens ever were: there is a building in the middle, in which a very good band plays for two hours every day. An excellent puppet-show is also exhibited once or twice, morning and evening, from a balcony on the Marino. This is a favourite amusement in Sicily, and they are very clever at it.

There are two public gardens at the east end of the Marino\*, — the Botanic and the Flower Garden; the former is under the direction of Dr. Tineo. At the entrance is a building, with porticos, front and rear, and fluted Doric columns; it is the model of an ancient temple: I have not seen any architecture more chaste or striking. The lecture-room has four statues, and a very handsome dome. The garden is extremely well laid out, and has several fountains in it. Adjoining is the flower garden, the walks in which are very pretty. People of all ranks are admitted; and towards afternoon it is always full. Guitar players, &c. &c. entertain the different groups, who here enjoy their evening walk in a most enchanting spot. There are a number of marble busts in the walks, and several temples and summer-houses. The whole

\* During the hot weather (about four months) the Marino is crowded with people all night; and it is a privilege of the walk, that lights are extinguished; the carriages and servants wait at a distance.



is surrounded with a wall, and laid out with great taste: the wall is low, however, and does not interrupt the grand and picturesque views of the mountains all round the land side of Palermo. In one part there are a number of monuments of great men, such as Diodorus, Archimedes, &c. all surrounded with cypress, willows, &c. The monuments are very handsome, and in various forms. The harmless lizard plays about, and numbers of insects and butterflies of beautiful colours enjoy the sweets of this garden.'

We will accompany the General to Girgenti, and then hasten to take our leave of him. This city is situated on the summit of a very high hill, on which stood the antient citadel of Agrigentum; whence the eye embraces at once an extensive and diversified prospect of mountains and woodlands, verdant hills, and fruitful vales, contrasted by the singular intermixture of several splendid monuments of antiquity, as well as by the sea, which is always a welcome addition to every view. It gives therefore a far better idea of what a really fine and noble city is, and ought to be, than we recollect to have elsewhere had occasion to notice. Much more perfect remains of antiquity also occur on this spot than in any other part of the island; of which the principal are the temples, situated at about the distance of a mile and a half from the modern city. Those of Venus and Diana are in the best state of preservation; and of the latter the bases, capitals, and entablatures are still nearly perfect. Several other temples are in a more decayed state, viz. those of Hercules, Jupiter Olympius, Æsculapius, Vulcan, &c.; from broken fragments of which, lying every where in confused heaps on the ground, the traveller finds it easy to form some idea of the magnificence of these places of Pagan worship. It appears from Diodorus, that the temple of Jupiter Olympius was three hundred and forty feet long, sixty broad, and one hundred and twenty high. 'Opposite the temple of Hercules,' General C. tells us, (Vol. ii. p. 61.) 'is the monument and burying-place of Hiero, King of Agrigentum.' We never yet heard of any King of Agrigentum of that name, which we had always conceived to be the appellation of the tyrants of Syracuse; and we can discover no reason for a Syracusan monarch being buried, and having a monument erected to his memory, in a rival city, with which he was almost invariably at war. We suppose that Gen. C. must mean Theron. — The modern town of Girgenti is miserable enough: poverty and wretchedness appear to be its principal features; the streets are narrow, dirty, and ill paved; and a filthy, comfortless, and vagabond kind of life seems to have succeeded to that real magnificence, luxury, and hospitality, for which its antient inhabitants were so particularly famed, that Plato said

said of them that they built as if they were always to live, and supped as if they were never to sup again.

The remaining portion of Gen. C.'s pages is allotted to a variety of miscellaneous observations on the manners and character of the Sicilians, their civil and military institutions, their misfortunes and degraded condition. We confess ourselves unable to efface the impression that a quantity of crude undigested matter has been here conglomerated together, without regard to order or arrangement, merely to swell the bulk of the publication. On leaving Sicily, the General returns home by the way of Malta, Gibraltar, and Lisbon; and, on his arrival at the latter place, he makes an excursion into the interior of Portugal: but, as we have found nothing in his account of that country of which we were not before apprized, we know not that our readers' time or trouble would be well repaid by pursuing his steps \*. This part also of his tour produces another string of uninteresting disquisitions, which it would have been well if the author had confined to his portfolio or memorandum-book; or he might have given only an abridgement of them to the public. To afford our readers some idea of the unconnected style of these memoirs, we extract the heads of them as they occur on the top of the pages: 'The Queen's Gardens,' 'Wine Companies,' 'Strength of Lines and Redoubts,' 'Custom-house at Lisbon,' 'Custom-house Abuses,' 'Dock-yard,' 'System of Female Education,' 'Wild Dogs,' 'Laziness of the Portuguese,' 'Buenos Ayres,' 'Fate of M. Masquerino,' &c. &c. — Towards the close of the

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\* We cannot, however, omit to notice with regret the General's strictures on the state of Gibraltar, and on the conduct of our troops in Portugal. Of the former, he says:

'Gibraltar was always a drunken place; and I am sorry to observe it is so still: — almost every man I saw (not on guard) was *reeling drunk*. From every appearance our engineers will never be satisfied here: after 30 years, one would imagine, nothing in the art of fortification could be wanting, particularly in a place so strong by nature: yet several new works are going on. Many officers of experience think this place has been weakened by the extension of the works. As the old ones stood the test of a long and famous siege, I think we might have been satisfied.'

With regard to the behaviour of the English army in Portugal, the General observes: 'Although it is certain that the French committed great excesses, I was sorry to find our troops nearly equalled them, notwithstanding the discipline of Lord Wellington, and his frequent orders against plunder. The people here say, the French troops were bad — the English worse — the Portuguese much worse, — but the Spaniards worse than all the rest together.'

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second volume, a disquisition also takes place on the age of the world, in which the old story of the Canon Recupero and Brydone is introduced, together with the celebrated reply of the late lamented Bishop of Landaff. This and much more, which we have not time to notice, will be found in an Appendix consisting of fourteen papers; in number eleven of which a singular piece of information occurs, viz. that *Æschylus* and *Euclid* were natives of Sicily; though the former has been hitherto supposed to be an Athenian, and the latter (if a certain mathematician of that name be meant) a native of *Alexandria* in Egypt.

Our readers will now have been able to collect, that the work under review is by no means what a tour in Sicily might and ought to have been. Though the author has had the education and the habits of a gentleman, his style is generally too frivolous for a man of sense, and occasionally too blunt and familiar to be free from the charge of inelegance; while his particularities of detail often approach the borders of coarseness\*. The volumes, it seems, 'were taken from a journal written without any intention of publication at the time;' and this circumstance in some degree accounts for the insertion of such remarks on certain domestic manners and customs as, we feel convinced, could never have been intended to meet the public eye. — Notwithstanding these and some other more venial blemishes, viz. repetitions of idea and phrase, and casual grammatical errors, arising perhaps from want of habit in the art of composition, we have not been insensible to some manifest and undeniable merits. We have perceived with pleasure a great degree of candour and frankness pervading the author's narrative: he appears to be free from prejudice against any one people, or blind partiality towards any peculiar country: he has evidently related facts and circumstances as he found them; and he has sometimes erred rather in giving too plain and too downright a statement of things, than in attempting to disguise the truth, or wilfully to convey an erroneous impression. We must also admit that much information may be gathered from the work; and that a person gifted with some degree of patience may collect from it, here and there, many judicious observations, and some very excellent, though few original, ideas.

On the whole, we have perused this publication with a mixture of pleasing and disagreeable sensations. Occasionally wearied by the sameness and insipidity of the style, we have at times been almost ready to close the volumes altogether;

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\* As one example, see Vol. i. p. 345.

yet, at other moments, we have felt a lively participation in the author's sentiments and situation, and been almost disposed to congratulate him on the success of his labours and thank him for the execution of the work. Were we to hazard an opinion respecting the degree of favour which the public will shew towards it, we should say that it will never be taken up without exciting gratification and interest, nor ever laid down without leaving some impressions of disappointment and regret.

# MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR AUGUST, 1816.

## RELIGIOUS.

Art. 10. *Institutes of Christian Perfection*, of Macarius the Egyptian, called the Great. Translated from the Greek, by Granville Penn, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 230. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1816.

Macarius, an Egyptian monk, was distinguished in the Eastern church, during the early part of the fourth century, by inflexible uprightness of conduct and spotless integrity of character, rather than by any peculiar splendour of intellectual endowments. His own natural inclination for purity of moral principle, as well as his accustomed energy and fervour not only in the performance of religious exercises but in a steady adherence to religious truth, contributed to render him a conspicuous ornament to that creed, in the support of which his affections had been early engaged; and, having placed himself under the guidance of St. Anthony, the original founder of monastic institutions, he soon arrived at such pre-eminence in the duties and discipline of the school which he had chosen, as to acquire the honourable appellation of *παλαισμός*, or the aged youth. About the time of his entering on the years of manhood, the church was beginning to smart under the lash of those persecutions and calamities which arose out of the Arian and Athanasian controversies, and which it was the object of the general council of Nice in Bithynia to assuage. When initiated into the office of the priesthood, his aversion to the tumult of religious dissension, and his desire of distinction only in the paths of piety and devotion, induced him to retire from those scenes of discord, in company with a congenial fraternity, and to court repose in the solitudes of Nitria. 'Here,' says Mr. Penn, 'in speaking of this pious assembly, their time was passed in offices of devotion and charity, in apostolical progresses and instructions, and in labours and works of different kinds; and with a constancy and sanctity so exemplary and notorious, that some imagined the prediction of the prophet, "The desert shall rejoice and blossom as the rose," to have been literally fulfilled in the solitudes of Egypt.' Their hap-

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piness, however, was soon interrupted by the loss of their great patron, the celebrated Bishop of Alexandria. Indeed, the death of Athanasius proved fatal to their tranquillity: since, on the instatement of Lucius, Athanasius's successor, in the episcopal chair, the indignation of the Arian Bishop broke out against these opponents of his creed, though harmless and unresisting Christians. Macarius and his brethren were in consequence banished to a remote island: but the Bishop, finding himself unable to effect conversion by means of punishment, or reconciliation by the exercise of arbitrary power, was soon persuaded to restore them to liberty; and Macarius found himself once more peaceably settled in Nitria, where he closed his career in devout resignation and serenity, A.D. 391, in the 91st year of his age.

The works, which have come down to us from the pen of this venerable person, are his Homilies and his *Opuscula*. The former have been printed at different times, in various forms, at Paris, Cologne, Lyons, and Leipsic; where the last edition of them was published by Pritius in 1698, in 8vo. with Palthenius's improved version. The *Opuscula* were first discovered in manuscript at Rome in 1666 by Francis Torrès, a Jesuit. They consist of seven books, treating of the different Christian virtues, together with apophthegms or miscellaneous sayings, and were first published at Paris in 1684 by Father Poissin (Possinus), together with a Latin version, in his *Thesaurus Asceticus*, 4to. They were afterward republished at Leipsic in 1698 by Pritius. 'It is this latter work, the *Opuscula*,' says the translator, 'which (with Possinus's *Apophthegms*) I here offer to the English reader, under the general title of "*Institutes of Christian Perfection*," as being the most simply descriptive of its subject and contents; since it consists entirely of rules and maxims of Christian perfection, often unconnected, and in no regular form of discussion: in accomplishing which object, I have only used the edition of Pritius, not having yet been able to procure the *Thesaurus Asceticus* of Possinus.' Mr. Penn is so well known to the public, both as a scholar and a theologian, that it is not necessary for us to comment at any length on his qualifications for a task which he has here executed with his usual ability: nor will our readers, we imagine, be disposed to question the utility of the writings of the early fathers of the church, if it be granted that the characters, the manners, and the sentiments of those, who lived nearest to the apostolical age, are necessarily the best models for our own.—The preface, which is composed with much elegance of style, exhibits an extensive degree of information relative to these early periods of Christianity: the scriptural references are numerous and accurate; and the annotations are just and appropriate.

Art. 11. *The Church in Danger: a Statement of the Cause, and of the probable Means of averting that Danger attempted; in a Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Liverpool, &c. &c.* By the Rev. Richard Yates, B.D. and F.S.A. Chaplain to the Royal Hospital, Chelsea; Rector of Ashen, &c. 8vo. pp. 226. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c. 1815.

Mr. Yates

Mr. Yates is already known to the public as the author of the *History and Antiquities of the Town and Abbey of St. Edmund's Bury*, and we think that the present tract is not likely to derogate from his reputation. His object is to shew in what consists any real danger to the ecclesiastical establishment of the kingdom, and to suggest those means which appear to him the most effectual in averting that danger. His arguments tend to prove that

'The Bible Societies not being the *chief cause* of injury, their restraint or suppression would not remove the danger:—that the increase of Sectarian methodism is not the cause, but a consequence of the present state of the church:—that the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, and the Society for the Establishment of National Schools, though admirable auxiliaries, are not and cannot of themselves be equal to the task of averting the threatening danger:—that the recent acts relating to the residence of the clergy, and the employment of curates, have not reached or even touched upon the source and cause of danger:—that the proposal for erecting one large parochial church in each of the present parishes must be found a very inadequate remedy;—and that a legislative enactment, prescribing a distribution of the population into appropriate divisions, supplying the means of public worship, and providing for the useful and efficient discharge of the pastoral offices, in districts not hitherto so provided, is the most certain and only probable means of securing the stability and prosperity of the established church.'

He begins therefore by shewing how disproportionate is the size of the churches to the population of the parishes, and how many persons are consequently excluded from public worship and parochial communion. On this principle, he takes a view of the means which are provided for public worship in the metropolis, where chapels have of late years been built to remedy the want of accommodation in the parish-churches: but these chapels, he justly observes, 'though they supply the means of public worship to many of the wealthy members of the community, yet certainly contribute a large proportion of injury to the established church.' It is a disgraceful thing that they should be conducted, as they are, like so many commercial speculations.—'The first object of the proprietors is to obtain the highest possible rent for the pews; those who can pay liberally are accommodated, the poor are universally and wholly excluded:—while the officiating ministers are hired, tried, kept, or dismissed, like menials, at the caprice of their employers, having no parochial connection with their congregation, and no power of appeal to the higher authorities of the establishment.—The average proportion of numbers, which, at the original division of parishes, our ancestors intended to allot to one church and one minister, is endeavoured to be obtained by taking the average number allotted to each minister in the several counties forming a circle of about 100 miles semi-diameter around the metropolis; and this general average is computed to be about 110 houses, and 640 persons to one parish church. By comparing, therefore, this allotment with the present state of the

churches and population of the several parishes of the kingdom, the inadequacy of provision, which the legislature has hitherto made for public worship, is manifestly apparent. The town of Brighton is a strong case in point; which, when merely a small fishing-place, was furnished with one church and one minister: it is now increased to a resident population of more than 12,000; 'and the law,' says Mr. Yates, 'still continues that number in *one* parish, under the care of *one* minister, and the same one church: which upon the largest computation cannot supply the benefit of the liturgical instruction of the church of England to more than 3,000, leaving a surplus population of 9,000 without parochial communion with the church of England.' The same observations are applied to many other parishes; in which, from different circumstances, the population has increased to a size never contemplated by the original framers of our ecclesiastical laws; and which, in consequence, require farther provision from the present legislative body.

This tract is well written, the arguments are ably drawn up, and the case is made out in a luminous and statistical manner.

#### BIOGRAPHY.

**Art. 12.** *A Biographical Memoir of the late Sir Peter Parker, Bart., Captain of his Majesty's Ship Menelaus, of 38 Guns, killed in Action while storming the American Camp at Bellair, near Baltimore, 31st August 1814.* 4to. pp. 111. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It is understood that this memoir proceeds from the pen of Sir George Dallas, whose daughter was wedded to the hero whom it depicts. The partiality of relationship may therefore be supposed to have had some effect over the sentiments and expressions of the narrator: but the professional character of Sir Peter Parker stood high enough to justify warmth of eulogy and the recommendation of it as an example; while of his private virtues Sir George must have been enabled to form a correct judgment. The name of Parker, indeed, has long been known with great distinction in the navy; and the lamented subject of this narrative seems likely to have carried it to augmented fame, had his life been longer spared. He was one of those instances in which promotion had been granted at an age to which the *regulations of the service* would have refused it, he having been raised to post-rank before he was twenty years old; and, though his example proved an exception to the wise principles of the rule which was broken in his case, we would not here forget that *exceptio confirmat regulam*: nor should an instance like this be quoted to justify such deviations, which are too often permitted at the demand of interest, to the contingent hazard of the public service and the certain dissatisfaction of the less fortunate members of it.

Sir Peter had been engaged in much active duty during the eight years of his life as a captain, being only 28 when he was killed in an action, on shore, into which his gallantry had extra-professionally carried him. The narrative is composed with interest.

terest and elegance; displaying the feelings of an affectionate heart, and the literary accomplishments of a gentleman. It is also ornamented by a striking portrait of the deceased hero; and by the pathetic and beautiful lines on his death which were written by his cousin Lord Byron, and have been circulated in the papers and magazines.

## POLITICS.

**Art. 13.** *Observations on the Principles which enter into the Commerce in Grain, and into the Measures for supplying Food to the People; being the Substance of an Essay read to the Literary and Commercial Society of Glasgow.* By Dugald Bannatyne, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1816.

Glasgow has always taken an active part in opposing restrictions on the free import of corn, the manufacturing interest considering it as the greatest of all advantages to command labour at a reasonable rate; and Mr. Bannatyne, having advocated this side of the question with applause before a society of his townsmen, has now been induced to submit his reasoning to a more comprehensive tribunal. All great authorities were, he says, (p. 10.) in favour of a free trade in corn until Mr. Malthus, in his work on Population, demanded the same protection for the home-grower of corn as for the home-manufacturer of particular commodities: but these manufactures, observes Mr. B., (such as lace and silks,) are productive of no benefit to the public, being all carried on in contradiction to natural and inherent obstacles, while our labour and capital would find a more beneficial direction if transferred to the woollen, cotton, hardware, or other branches; in which, particularly in the latter, we possess local and permanent advantages over our Continental neighbours.

‘It seems extraordinary, that we should be so much alive to the advantages we gain from the division of employments in the prosecution of our home-industry, and not see the benefit to be obtained from the more extended division of them among nations; a division pointed out by the separate facilities for carrying them on, which, from climate, soil, or natural productions, different countries possess.’

The scope of this reasoning, followed up, as it is, through several pages, is to exhibit the extension of tillage to inferior soils as unadvisable, because corn can be imported cheaper than it can be grown; and because, by keeping up the price artificially, we oblige ourselves to labour in our manufactures at a great disadvantage when compared with other nations. The practical result of the plan of Mr. B. (a plan in which he has the support of the great majority of the political economists) would be to turn the inferior soils into pasture; to till only the better, or, at most, the middling; to be contented with seeking a part of our annual supply (perhaps a seventh) from foreign countries; and to find a counterpoise to this partial depreciation of the value of our land, in the general superiority which would eventually accrue to the country at large from bringing the price of labour and provisions



nearly on a level with those of other countries. Yet to this plan some very serious objections may be urged; not to the principle, (which is incontrovertible,) but to the extent of injury that would, in the mean time, be sustained by our farmers and landholders; to the financial difficulty attending a repeal of the taxes which press on agriculture; and to the almost universal embarrassment of the tradesmen, the shop-keepers, and even the labourers dependent for employment on the farming interest. No man will advise to suspend the payment of the interest of the national debt; and in what way can the taxes that would be lost by the overthrow of the present agricultural system be replaced, otherwise than by encumbering with export-duty those very commodities, from the extended sale of which the advocates of Mr. B.'s system bid us to expect our relief?

The remainder of the tract (p. 23. *et seq.*) is occupied in exhibiting the national loss that is consequent on the present system of restriction, and the eventual stability that would attend the state of the farmer, could our situation allow of complete freedom in the corn-trade. All this must be admitted by the impartial inquirer; but by what means is it possible for us to extricate ourselves from the situation into which long-continued war and enormous taxation have brought us? We, for our part, can see no hope of good from any sudden alteration in the principles of the corn-trade: but we may look with confidence to the eventual benefit that will arise from a pacific system, a reduction of national expence, a progressive improvement of machinery, and a general habit of economy in private life. These form the best and surest bases of commercial greatness; it was these which proved the support of Holland in her better days; and which, combined with the possession of extensive capital and the advantages of an insular position, may yet revive the languishing prosperity of England.

Art. 14. *Observations on the Scarcity of Money; and its Effects upon the Public.* By Edward Tatham, D.D. Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 32. Rivingtons, &c. 1876.

We can by no means congratulate this reverend gentleman on the figure that he makes as a political economist. The reasons, by which he attempts to account for the existence of public distress, are such as we should expect from an honest farmer or his good-natured consort arguing by the fire-side; viz. that our money has been drained out of the country in loans and subsidies, while the arrival of fresh supplies has been prevented by the troubles in Mexico and Peru. It seems never to enter into Dr. T.'s calculation that money thus withdrawn is speedily replaced by the returns of trade; and he can find no better expedient for our relief than an increased issue of our currency in the shape both of coin and bank-paper. He flatters himself with accomplishing an important point by subjecting bank-notes to a stamp annually renewable, and by obliging private bankers to give landed or funded security to the public for the payment of their notes: but the former of these expedients could scarcely answer any other purpose than that of increasing revenue; and, if the latter be apparently

apparently desirable, we shall do well to remember that the object contemplated by it might be attained by the much less burdensome alternative of giving to gentlemen of landed property the permission of becoming partners in great banking establishments, to the extent that is practised north of the Tweed. It is a remarkable fact, (see Evidence before the Bullion-Committee, 1810,) that no Scotch bank has ever failed in the fulfilment of its engagements; a circumstance to be explained only by the magnitude of the establishments, and by the non-existence of the law which with us limits to six the number of partners in any banking concern except the Bank of England.

We have refrained from dwelling on the variety of excentric notions with which this tract is replete. The following remark may give a tolerable idea of Dr. T.'s estimate of his powers of prediction, if the individual to whom he alludes be, as we suppose, himself: 'Since the miraculous battle of Waterloo, we live in the hope that France is settled at last. Many were weak enough, with the exception of *one at least*, to think the same more than a year and a half ago.'

**Art. 15.** *A Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Liverpool, on the State of the Agriculture of the United Kingdom, and on the Means of relieving the present Distress of the Farmer, and of securing him against the Recurrence of similar Embarrassment.* By R. Torrens, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1816.

Our readers will recollect that we had occasion to notice successively Major Torrens's publications on money and paper-currency, on the Catholic-question, and more lately a work of fiction under the title of "The Victim of Intolerance." In the pamphlet before us, he quits the field of imaginary description, and is content to return to what Dr. Johnson might have called "plain and sober ratiocination." In treating of the distresses of our agriculturists, he lays very little stress on the reduction of our bank-paper; attributing the rapid alteration to the greatness of the change from war to peace, and to the effect of a disposition in the people to go to an extreme in either situation. He then combats, more seriously than the subject deserved, the highly improper recommendation of the Corn-committee of 1813 to impose on foreign wheat the enormous duty of 24 shillings a quarter; and he is equally strenuous in opposing the projected tax on foreign wool, a proposition originating, we believe, with Lord Sheffield. With regard to an expected change in the mode of collecting tythes, Major T. is friendly to the proposed alteration, but deems it necessary to caution the farmer against expecting much relief from it. His great hope of our recovering former prosperity rests on the adoption of a free and unrestricted system in our corn-trade; and he observes:

'To any persons who will either investigate first principles, or recur to the experience of countries which, like Holland, have given freedom to trade, it must be evident, that this natural state of things is greatly preferable to any artificial system which can be substituted in its stead. — As we extend the area from which

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subsistence

subsistence is drawn, the inequality in the productiveness of the seasons diminishes. Hence when, under a free intercourse, deficient harvests required an unusual importation, abundant harvests in some other country of the world would supply the deficiency by an extraordinary export. On the other hand, a succession of unusually abundant years could occasion no deep depression in our markets, because this extraordinary quantity of corn of home-growth could not (as when abundant harvests occur in the case of a country forcing in average years an independent supply) much exceed the consumption of the season.'

The question of a state of freedom in the import and export of corn is evidently that part of the subject with which Major T. is most familiar: he repels the principal objections to it with considerable effect; and he even undertakes to shew that, so far from its being eventually disadvantageous to the landlord and the farmer, these two important classes would find in it the basis of their future security. We agree with him that, if, by the effects of long peace, the increase of our capital, the farther improvement of machinery, or any other causes, we could bring our general prices down to a level or nearly to a level with those of our neighbours, complete freedom in the export and import of corn would be a most desirable system: but to attempt it under present circumstances would, like a sudden resumption of cash-payments, be productive of a degree of distress which it is the most serious duty of Government to avoid.

#### MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 16. *Practical Observations on Necrosis of the Tibia*; illustrated with Cases, and a Copper-plate. To which is added, a Defence of a Tract, entitled, "Description of an Affection of the Tibia induced by Fever, &c." By Thomas Whately, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. pp. 130. 6s. Boards. Callow. 1815.

A few years ago, Mr. Whately published an essay in which he described a peculiar affection of the tibia, sometimes occurring as a consequence of fever, in which part of the inner surface of the bone exfoliates, the loose pieces then forming a source of irritation which communicates a troublesome disease to the whole limb. In some remarks that were made on this work, it was asserted that the author had not understood the nature of the malady on which he was treating; and that the disease which he had described as new, and as not before distinctly noticed by any writer, was in fact nothing more than the well known *necrosis ossium*, or dry gangrene of the bones. To repel this objection, and to illustrate the difference between the two diseases, form the immediate object of the present essay; in which Mr. Whately minutely describes the proper necrosis, contrasts it with the peculiar affection of the tibia consequent on fever, gives directions for their treatment, especially dwells on those points in which a difference in this respect is necessary, and concludes with relating a number of cases of the proper necrosis which have fallen under his own inspection.

**inspection.** The necrosis of the tibia is defined to be 'an attack of inflammation, followed by suppuration, and producing certain effects upon the bones.' This inflammation is said to affect the substance of the bone, in the first instance. As we may suppose, it varies in its degree of violence in different cases, and consequently in the degree of its effects; and the author describes, at some length, the several gradations of disease which the bone assumes.

'All the vessels which carry blood into the tibia must be excited to strong action, by which the bony laminae are so destroyed, that nearly the whole of this hard bone, from joint to joint, is reduced in some cases to a mere vascular pulp, by the absorption and annihilation of all its component parts; except only a few small particles of bone, which are detached from the circulation, and remain as extraneous bodies in different parts of the leg. In other cases, where the attack is not more severe, nor the inflammation more extensive, and where the symptoms appear as nearly the same as possible, almost the whole cylinder of the tibia, though frequently in a jagged and eroded state in some parts of it, perishes, is detached at each extremity, at a little distance from its connection with the epiphysis, and thrown off as an extraneous body. In other cases again, a portion only of the cylinder of the tibia, accompanied by other large pieces from different parts of the bone, is left detached from the adjoining parts by the inflammation; all the remainder of the bone being absorbed. Or it sometimes happens, that almost the whole substance of the tibia is absorbed or destroyed; leaving only some long thin dead laminae, which are often found six or eight inches in length. Besides these cases, there are others, in an almost endless variety, in the size, number, and situation, of portions of the tibia, detached by the inflammation, and left as extraneous bodies. Among these are, sometimes, portions of its cancellated structure, the remainder of the bone being, in all these cases, as in the former, absorbed, or in some way destroyed.'

In the course of his work, the author is led to notice the treatise on the same subject by Mr. Russel, in whose opinions he generally coincides: but on one point he differs from him; and one which involves a question of considerable practical importance: viz. 'whether the bones, when once detached from the circulation, undergo a gradual decay, and consequent diminution of size, being dissolved by the heat and moisture of the part, and are at length totally absorbed or discharged, in no unreasonable length of time after their separation; or whether they remain for a very long time nearly in an unchanged state.' Mr. Russel speaks confidently as to the possibility of this change; whereas Mr. Whately's experience leads him to think that, when any portion of bone is entirely cut off from the circulation, it undergoes very little change.

The latter portion of the essay is occupied with practical directions for the treatment of this complaint; a very important part of which consists in removing the dead *sequestre*, as it is called, from the case of new bony matter in which it is enveloped. In this stage

stage of the cure, a considerable share of mechanical contrivance is often necessary; and it is not easy to lay down any general plan which must not be modified by each individual instance that comes before us. In ten cases, with which the volume concludes, Mr. W. minutely details the different stages of the disease; affording a valuable fund of information for the young practitioner, who may be required to exercise his art in the treatment of so singular an affection.

**Art. 17.** *Reflections on Fever*: intended to point out the Principles upon which a systematic and useful Method of Treatment might be established. By Robert Calvert, M.D., Physician to the Forces, &c. 8vo. pp. 84. 4s. 6d. Boards. Callow. 1815.

If these reflections be not calculated to produce any great effect on the practice in fever, or to diffuse any great light over the theory, they may nevertheless be read with advantage; and they possess the merit of brevity. The author appears to have made some useful observations, and to have reflected on what he has observed; and probably farther experience and reflection may enable him to model his opinions into a more correct and matured form than that in which they now appear. His leading doctrine is that the health of the body chiefly depends on a due balance between the functions of secretion and excretion on the one hand, and those of assimilation on the other; which equilibrium, he says, 'between the ingress and egress of the circulating fluids, I shall call the balance of circulation.' This amounts nearly to the old Sanctorian doctrine of the statical medicine; and it is illustrated very much in the manner of that assiduous experimentalist. Like him, Dr. Calvert imputes very important effects to the state of the cuticular discharge, and particularly to the insensible perspiration. He refers to the experiments of Lavoisier and Seguin; in which they found, or thought that they found, this discharge to amount to one pound and 14 ounces daily, and hence he deduces the following argument:

'Now supposing this to be suppressed for the space of four-and-twenty hours, the other functions remaining unchanged, it is evident, that no less than thirty ounces would be added to the circulating mass during that space of time, which is at the rate of ten drachms *per horam*. When we reflect upon the alleviation of the symptoms, which a patient experiences in the height of a febrile paroxysm, from the abstraction of a few ounces of blood, or from the loss of a like quantity by perspiration, we cannot wonder, that the accumulation of the perspirable fluid alone should, in the space of twenty-four hours, give rise to all those distressing symptoms we perceive to happen.'

After this general view of his hypothesis, Dr. C. next proposes 'to explain more particularly the effects of diurnal changes of temperature upon the vascular system, as tending to produce a febrile state of the body.' This diurnal change, as depending merely on the presence or absence of the sun's rays, he supposes to act on the body so as to produce 'a diurnal flux and reflux in the vascular system,' by which the pores of the skin are opened in the day, and closed at night; thus causing 'a vascular plethora.'

If this change takes place too rapidly, or if it be carried beyond its proper degree, it is supposed to constitute the immediate origin of a febrile paroxysm. This principle is then applied to those different circumstances which increase the frequency or the violence of fever, such as warm climates; marshy situations, the autumnal season, &c.; and the author afterward attempts to explain how this vascular plethora may be, at one time, applied to generate a quotidian, and at another time a tertian, or a quartan fever. To the same circumstance is also referred the enlargement of the different viscera and the affections of the head, with the deranged state of the secretions and of the animal functions, which occur in fever.

The treatment of fever will naturally follow from the idea of its cause, and must consist in obviating or removing this loss of 'balance between the ingress and egress of the circulating fluids.' We are first, it is said, to ascertain whether the balance be destroyed by too great an ingress or too small an egress, or by these circumstances combined. In this way is explained the action of the different means of producing evacuations of any kind, by the skin, by the bowels, or by blood-letting. On the latter remedy we have some judicious remarks; the main object of which is to shew that its operation has not been well understood, and that it has often been employed in a very rash and ill-advised manner. The subsequent paragraph contains a summary of the author's sentiments on this topic: 'Blood-letting, though an useful and important remedy in fever, is but secondary to those I have already pointed out. It is to be employed, 1st, in all those cases where the accumulation of fluids is so great, that we cannot hope to reduce them through their natural outlets; or, where the danger of delay renders an immediate evacuation necessary. 2dly, When there is considerable local accumulation in any of the important viscera, as the lungs, liver, intestines, brain, &c. which threatens destruction or disorganization to the parts, or threatening apoplexy. Lastly, When the vessels of any important organ have been actually burst.'

**Art. 18.** *A Letter to Thomas Thompson, Esq. M.P., containing Considerations on the Necessity of proper Places being provided by the Legislature for the Reception of all insane Persons, and on some of the Abuses which have been found to exist in Mad-houses, with a Plan to remedy them.* By W. C. Ellis, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons. 8vo. 2s. Longman. 1815.

As Mr. Ellis undertakes to discuss all the interesting topics announced in this title-page, in the brief compass of 48 pages, we cannot expect him to enter very profoundly into them, or to throw much new light on them: but we must acknowledge that the pamphlet contains some sensible remarks; and that its brevity, if on some accounts it may be urged as an objection, may also be considered on others as a recommendation. Mr. E. strongly insists on the fact, which is now made known by irrefragable proofs, that the receptacles for the insane, in different parts of the kingdom, are not nearly sufficient in number, and that most of them have been very improperly managed. The cause of some of the abuses he conceives to be 'the mystery with which many of those who have

have had the management of the insane have constantly endeavoured to envelop it; so that, while most other parts of medical practice have been in a state of progressive improvement, the treatment of insanity has remained nearly stationary. 'The same practice still exists that has done for many years in the largest and oldest establishment in the kingdom, that of bleeding and vomiting all round the spring and autumn.'

The principal remedy proposed for this evil consists in the suppression of all, or nearly all, the *private* establishments, and in the erection in their stead of *public* asylums, appropriated to certain districts, to be under the superintendence of proper inspectors. It is not to be doubted that strong objections may be urged against public asylums, as they have been hitherto managed: 'but, on due examination,' Mr. Ellis remarks, 'it will be found, that the abuses in many of them have arisen from the bad laws by which they have been governed; the proprietors having, as I have observed before, either had an interest in the patients' remaining, or they have considered them only as the means of filling their own private establishments, and have paid no farther regard to them, than what they thought necessary to answer that purpose.' By the appointment of inspectors, and some other regulations which he suggests, Mr. Ellis conceives that these difficulties may be obviated.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 19. *A Narrative of the Retreat of the British Army from Burgos in a Series of Letters. With an Introductory Sketch of the Campaign of 1812, and Military Character of the Duke of Wellington.* By George Frederick Burroughs, Surgeon, Bristol, late Assistant-Surgeon of the Royal Dragoons. 8vo. pp. 88. Egerton, &c.

We are sorry that this little work has lain for a considerable time unseen among a heap of others, since the nature of its subject made its interest rather temporary, while its familiar mode of composition does not allow it to claim the permanent value of regular history. Its literary merit, indeed, is not great: but its derivation from an eye-witness of the scenes depicted, and its apparent good faith, give it a certain degree of value and attraction. Its delineation of Spanish scenery and Spanish conduct, of the difficulties of our campaigning in that country and of a retreat before the enemy, and of the great talents of our Commander, will be found to correspond generally with other accounts. The noble Wellington, indeed, is so brilliant an object in the eyes of Mr. Burroughs, that the latter might parody some well known lines, and exclaim,

"He has no faults, or I no faults can spy;  
He is all grandeur, or all blindness I."

Mr. B.'s journal does not contain many particulars unconnected with military movements: but occasionally the latter are varied by notices of the country and the inhabitants, or descriptions of circumstances not exactly military though involved in the operations of war. The entrance of our troops into Madrid is stated as the cause of great satisfaction to the people of that metropolis, and their retreat is thus characterized:

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' The departure of the troops from Madrid was attended with that proportionate degree of sorrow, which joy at our entrance had excited; and it was truly a heart-rending scene to abandon to the unmerciful contributions of the enemy, a people who had shewn themselves so decidedly friendly to the English nation. Don Carlos de la Espana, who had been appointed governor during the temporary possession of the capital, had perhaps too rigorously exercised his authority by putting in arrest and confinement all those who were supposed to be in favour of the French, and confiscated their houses and property to the Cortes; and now, unfortunately, those in our own interest, fearful the French should enforce the same discipline upon them, left Madrid, and accompanied our army in considerable numbers.

' In all these marches the females, as may be supposed, were the greatest sufferers, and if the cumbrous and fantastic dresses of the elder ladies prompted a smile, the loveliness and elegance of the young elicited the warmest sympathy. The industrious, though too much insulted ass, was the common beast of burden, and some of them carried upon their backs what I would have willingly carried on my own—all that could interest by the union of youth, innocence, and beauty. These unfortunate individuals, in the alleviation of whose distress, compassion had lost its balm, and hope its solace, had nothing but an ill-contrived parasol, or umbrella, to protect them from the weather. If the sun shone, their faces were suffused with many a limpid drop, and exhaustion hung upon their lips;—did it rain, their gay attire, like the feathers of birds, hung soddened and drooping to their delicate forms, and dejection sat upon their brows; while others in indifferent health, seated on a bullock car, were sobbing to the disagreeable squeaking of the greaseless wheels \*. If you asked them where they were going? they said—they did not know, they were going with the English. Some, indeed, there were, who did not scruple in ascribing to us the origin of their present miseries, and upbraided us with evils, which, even if we had the inclination to inflict, we could not have prevented. However, as far as our circumstances and limited means would allow, every attention was paid them.'

On quitting Salamanca, Mr. B. says:

' I could not refrain from entering and bidding adieu to an University, which had exhibited much learning, and produced men of considerable eminence, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries:—but the more powerful inducement was that of replenishing my stock of provisions, which was reduced to a few hard pieces of biscuit; and these, even when broken between the stones, continued to disappoint both my teeth and my appetite. On entering the plaza, or square, and going into a shop, my attention was arrested by two interesting females, sisters, who were lamenting with tears in their eyes their unhappy situation. They said, "their friends

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\* \* The people entertain an idea that the noise made by the wheels of the car stimulates the oxen to exertion, for which reason they never grease them.'

were



were all about to leave the city with their property — for themselves, they knew not what to do, they were lost to the world." I was glad to return from this distressing sight, but it was only to witness others. Some individuals were engaged in removing their property, — others in assisting their sick relations upon cars, — while a few from the effects of stupor and fright, occasioned by the approach of the enemy, were carrying away the least valuable part of their possessions. The distress of the nuns, who were too generally ill-treated by the French soldiery, was not the least conspicuous; in fluttering trepidation, they crowded at the grating of the convent-windows, waving their white handkerchiefs to the British soldiers, who were passing, and bidding them farewell.

In the Introduction, we perused with regret the author's remark that at Salamanca the English found difficulty in obtaining food, partly owing to the circumstance that some of Sir John Moore's forces had neglected to pay for their supplies; so that, whenever the Commissariat applied for provisions, 'the magistrates never failed to present them with a number of the cheeks or acknowledgements given by that army; recommending that they should be taken up first.' Surely, this nice observance of *cash-accounts*, however just in itself, was a sad return for the labours and lives of those who came to defend a country which its natives could not or would not protect!

Art. 20. *A Guide to all the Watering or Sea-bathing Places, with a Description of the Lakes, a Sketch of a Tour in Wales, and various Itineraries, illustrated with Maps and Views.* A new and improved Edition. By the Editor of the Picture of London. 12mo. pp. 560. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

No person can expect, even from a reviewer, a detailed and precise opinion as to the merits, in point of accuracy, of so multifarious a compilation as this; and it is almost equally vain to demand uniform freedom from error, positive and negative, on the part of the compiler. We can, however, say that the present Guide has the appearance of possessing claims to approbation, above the level of ordinary productions of this nature; that the engravings are numerous and pleasing; and that the editor declares that he has himself personally visited 'most of the places described, and made many of his observations on the spot.' It has also the very necessary addition of a copious index, — too often omitted in such works.

Art. 21. *Letters Patent.*—*A National Institution, for the general Accommodation and Benefit of Country Bankers; including the Safety of their Remittances in Parcels by Coaches, and other Purposes.* Established in 1815. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s. 6d. Asperne.

The news-papers have of late contained more than abundant evidence of the depredations that occur in the conveyance of bankers' parcels by coaches, and have pointed to the necessity of adopting some effectual method of preventing them. Government, it seems from this pamphlet, (p. 28.) has it in contemplation to pledge itself for the security of the parcels in question, on condition of receiving

ing a remuneration in the shape of a small tax on the country-bankers: but this being, like other post-office improvements, delayed until the erection of the new edifice lately proposed in parliament, Mr. Pickering comes forwards in the interval with his intended scheme, viz. that of 'affixing to all notes sent by coach a mark implying that payment is stopped until their arrival be duly certified.' He proposes to take an office in a central situation in the city: receiving all parcels at the different inns on the arrival of the mail-coaches (twenty-two in number) in the morning, and delivering them, in the course of an hour or two, by his clerks to the different bankers. This charge was at first intended to be at the rate of five shillings per 1000l. conveyed: but this he afterwards modifies to an annual sum, varying in its amount according to the distance of the country-banker from London.

The London bankers, on being asked to promote this scheme, declined to adopt it; declaring that the losses did not concern them but the country-bankers; and adding, with true mercantile caution, that 'plans for the advantage of others must not increase their trouble or the number of their clerks.' Answers rather more polite, but equally unsatisfactory, were returned at a public meeting of country-bankers held in the last year in London, where considerable regret was expressed that the patentee should have put himself to so much expence. Mr. P. is certainly very unlucky in endeavouring to make his plan intelligible either to the individuals concerned or to the public at large; since he occupies nearly forty pages in attempts to explain what might, we think, be conveyed much more clearly in a third part of the space.

**Art. 22.** *The System of Stock-jobbing explained: exposing the Ground of the Art, secret Manœuvres, Tricks, and Contrivances, Delusion of the monied Interest, and general Peculation, &c. &c.* By a practical Jobber. 8vo. pp. 87. Chapple. 1816.

This tract is avowedly composed by the author of the pamphlet on the same subject which we noticed in our Number for January last. We should in truth have been at no loss to recognize the identity of the writer by the unfortunate perplexity of his style, and by his incessant difficulty in making his ideas intelligible to the reader. The chief difference in the productions consists in the present having a table of contents, and a glossary of the cant terms in the Stock-exchange: but, in other respects, the same ground is in a great measure re-trodden: the writer's object being to explain the manner in which the worthy members of the Stock-exchange, or at least the portion of them who deal in time-bargains, attain the important point of transferring the money of the speculators out of doors into their own pockets.

A publication exposing in clear and intelligible language the manœuvres of the Stock-exchange would be curious and useful: but the task of comprehending these mysterious proceedings is only rendered more and more difficult by attempts to extract a meaning from the bewildered notions of such a writer as the one before us. Of this fact the reader will very soon convince himself, by referring from the table of contents to the text for any particular point  
in

in regard to which his curiosity may be excited. Even the glossary is given in a confused and drawing style; — we extract from it a few paragraphs that are rather better than the rest:

' *Bulls.* — Persons that purchase with a view for (to) a rise in the value of the funds.

' *Bears.* — Persons that sell with a view that the Stocks will fall.

' *Banging.* — *Selling the price down.* "I am a seller at 60½, I am a seller at ½, I am a seller at ½, I am a seller at ½;" so the price will be called down without any transaction having taken place, but if there should, it will be among themselves.

' *Puffing.* — *Buying the price up.* Having first got in at 60, "I am a buyer of Consols at 60½; I am a buyer at ½; I am a buyer at ½; I am a buyer at ½." — Thus the price may be set against those they first bought of; but sometimes they may bang and puff merely to draw people to act, that, if there be no account, this may make one.

' *Ear-wiggling.* — When bargains are done privately in the market by a whisper; "I do not wish to let any person know I am a Bull."

These manœuvres apply only to the jobbers or speculators in stock, the established broker being generally a stranger to them, and in the habit of selling so much stock for so much ready money, in the same way as bargains take place in other regular markets.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

In the *Correspondence* of our last Number, we intimated our intention of forwarding the communication of Dr. Richardson, on Fiorin Grass, for insertion in one of our Magazines; and we have now to inform our readers that they will find it in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for this month.

The work on the 'Second Usurpation of Bonaparte' is under consideration.

A verbal error occurred in our last Review, of which we request our readers to take notice, and to mark its correction in their copies. In Art. 15. of the Catalogue, p. 318., the first extract from Mr. Rogers's *Days of Harold* should have been printed thus:

'The keen autumnal breeze of night  
Subsiding at the peep of light,' &c.

The repetition of the word *night* was owing to the haste of an amanuensis in transcribing the lines from the book; and the distinction of marking the two words in *italic*, by which a censure on that repetition was conveyed, was owing to the misled vigilance of the corrector of the press. Mr. Rogers and the Reviewer are equally free from the commission and the ascription of the error.

\*.\* The Appendix to this Volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of October, with the Number for September.



THE  
A P P E N D I X  
TO THE  
EIGHTIETH VOLUME  
OF THE  
M O N T H L Y R E V I E W  
E N L A R G E D.

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FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Examen des Principes, &c.*; i. e. An Examination of the Principles most conducive to the Advancement of Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce, in France. By Ls. D. B. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 746. Paris. 1815. London, De Boffe. Price 1l.

THE ordinary productions of the French press are of a description materially different from that of the work now before us. We have here no flights of fancy, no studied point or antithesis in language, but a course of reasoning as calmly and gravely followed up as if it had proceeded from the pen of a German or a Dutchman. Still, united with the impartiality common to such writers, it discovers not a little of their verbose and indecisive tone; containing frequently an enumeration of self-evident particulars, without any forcible applications; and laying claim to the reader's approbation more by the sincerity of the intention than the power of the arguments. Whether we look to the introduction, to the main part of the treatise, or to the concluding summary, we trace throughout the same character of composition; — we find an abundant stock of observations, displaying undoubted accuracy and commendable moderation, but a very scanty portion of any thing that can be called either new or striking.

M. D. B.'s inquiry is divided into three principal parts, agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial: but this statement, without farther explanation, would convey a very-indistinct

idea of the various topics discussed. Under the head of Agriculture we have a number of remarks on collateral subjects, such as taxes and their operation on the state of the cultivator; the deficient education of the peasantry; the inadequate salaries of the country-curates; the improvement of the breed of horses, &c. The second division is confined to its proper object of manufactures, treating successively of those of wool, cotton, flax, silk, iron, and leather; and under this head the author introduces (Vol. i. p. 273.) his first observations in support of a very liberal and judicious, but for the present, we fear, impracticable proposition; that of making no distinction between home and foreign fabrics, but of admitting the whole into France free of duty. He recommends that the greatest extension should be given to this new doctrine; opening the frontier of the kingdom to foreigners in war as well as in peace; and even going so far as to allow hostile merchantmen to resort, undisturbed and under their national flag, to the French ports. England, he apprehends, will not, for some ages at least, consent to this pacific mode of treating an enemy; but he argues, and with very considerable force, (Vol. ii. p. 212.) on the advantage of such a line of conduct to France, even without the benefit of reciprocity. English merchandise, to some extent, she must have at all events; and that which she will not consent to receive by English vessels must be brought to her, generally at a higher rate, by neutrals. Why, then, not adopt a course which, without injuring France, would contribute more than any thing to lessen that feeling of animosity which an adverse government generally finds it so easy to kindle in the minds of its subjects? What an important step would this be towards that prolonged, we may even say that permanent, state of peace, which the author shows (Vol. ii. p. 73.) to be so much the interest of every industrious community!

The great change produced throughout Europe by the sudden transition from war to peace is likely to operate materially on the collection of custom-house duties, particularly in countries that have a considerable extent of land-frontier; and where the different governments can no longer keep on foot that host of military, whose co-operation was so effectual in seconding the civil officers in the repression of contraband traffic.

Smuggling forms a set of men capable of any crime, inured to fatigue, exposed to every kind of danger, and fearing neither the rigour of winter nor the nocturnal journey, nor the opposition of the Custom-house officers. The profits which they expect tempt them to brave the chance of arrests, of fines, of imprisonment,

imprisonment, and even of death. England may hope, from her insular situation, if not to stop smuggling entirely, at least to diminish its effects: but France, being connected with the Continent on several sides, and surrounded by a number of different states who are interested in promoting smuggling on her territory, cannot so easily defend herself. If, then, she should continue the prohibitory system, she will find it necessary to persist in alarming the fraudulent dealers by a code of barbarous laws that are incompatible with a free constitution.

After the peace of 1783, efforts were made to establish a moderate system of Custom-house duties in France; and in 1786 a commercial treaty was concluded with England, which was considered as advantageous to both nations: the only objection that could be reasonably made to it being that England continued to prohibit the importation of silk stuffs from French looms. Yet this treaty was censured by a great number of French manufacturers, whose opinions were guided by inveterate prejudice: while the Commercial Chamber of Rouen published a celebrated memoir which condemned every article of it, and which was afterward discussed by a number of writers, some of whom were unacquainted with the very first principles of trade. The outcry against this treaty has continued to the present day: yet it was sufficiently impartial; and its chief defect was the extent of taxation which it imposed on the products of the industry of the two nations; amounting to twelve or fifteen per cent. on their value. This impost was much higher than the rate of insurance on smuggling, which at that time amounted in France to no more than four or five per cent.; on the payment of which all the English manufactures could be conveyed with safety into the country. The consequence was that the duties fixed by the treaty were generally eluded, either by false declarations at the Custom-houses or by the introduction of goods by smuggling.

In the year after the conclusion of this treaty, the importation of manufactured goods from England into France amounted to about 1,250,000*l.* sterling; a quantity so far exceeding the demand that a great part was necessarily sold at a loss. The English exporters, warned by this example, limited their consignments to the demand, and in the following year the imports were reduced to half. The exports from France to England amounted in each of these years to a million or 1,250,000*l.*; of which 6 or 700,000*l.* were for wine and spirits.

At the Revolution, the duties on transporting goods from province to province in the interior were abolished, and only a single line of Custom-houses was left along the frontier of the kingdom. At first the duties were moderate, but they very soon increased under Bonaparte's government, his wants augmenting yearly in proportion as his conquests were extended. When he came to act the part of a tyrant, the Custom-house-system took a similar direction, and became oppressive and absurd. He prohibited in merchants what he allowed to himself; he forbade, under the severest penalties, and even that of death, all intercourse

with England, while he carried on an open trade with that country by means of the licences which he sold to ship-owners, on condition of their paying duties of 100 and 150 per cent. on the value of the merchandise imported into France. Yet he continued to declare that all his views tended to the promotion of French industry, and he found manufacturers credulous or blind enough to applaud measures which could only conduce to their eventual ruin.'

All these considerations come in aid of the favourite ideas of the author, viz. the abolition of the import-duty on foreign goods, the discharge of the numerous body of Custom-house officers kept up for the purpose of collecting them, and the permission for merchandise of all kinds to find a market without any other charge than that of production, manufacture, and transport. The common interest of the farmer, the manufacturer, the merchant, and the consumer, is to purchase foreign goods at a low price, and to sell those of their own country to advantage; and the true way of attaining this object is to increase the number of buyers and sellers, which can be accomplished only by inviting all nations to cultivate connections mutually advantageous, without imposing on them any restraint or burden.

The width of the line subjected to the Custom-house-regulations was at first fixed at two leagues along the whole circumference of France, but it was afterward extended to two myriamètres, or about four leagues and a half. The superintendence of so great an extent of country requires a multitude of collectors, offices, guards, and expences of every kind. Under *Bonaparte's* government, their number, owing to the immense extent of the empire, was thirty or thirty-five thousand men, and they were supported also by corps of regular troops. Even at present, the number of persons employed about the Custom-houses is said to amount to twenty thousand, and the total expence is nearly 800,000l. sterling. The plan which I so anxiously recommend, of throwing open our frontiers to the unrestrained admission of foreign merchandise; would restore to agriculture, to manufactures, and to the arts, at least the half of the persons employed in the Custom-houses; whose talents are at present perverted in efforts to check the progress of industry and to torture our commerce. By bringing the price and quality of our manufactures continually to a level with those of foreign nations, it will consolidate their present prosperity for ages. The unrestrained liberty of trade would calm those jealousies of France which the English have long felt;—it would preserve us from a too frequent recurrence of commercial wars, each of which has hitherto cost us some of our colonies, besides enormous expences, and has occasioned us, in the case of Dunkirk and other places, the most mortifying humiliations;—and, lastly, it would enable us to dispense with particular commercial treaties with any nation, which would no longer be necessary, since all would be put on a footing of equality. Every commercial treaty is an exclusive

privilege

privilege in favour of the nation with which it is made, by granting to the lattersome advantages superior to those that are enjoyed by other foreign nations. Such privilege, or monopoly, allowed to a particular nation, is just as far from being advantageous to France as an exclusive privilege to supply the whole kingdom with cotton-cloth, granted to Rouen, would be to Paris and the other towns. Unlimited competition is as necessary in foreign as in home-trade.

In point of politics, this writer is a royalist: but he seldom makes an allusion to topics of this nature, being anxious to direct the attention of his readers to that course of conduct which may lead them eventually to forget all their dissensions and misfortunes. In one passage (p. 25.), he describes his countrymen as divided into three parties; first, the ultra-royalists; next, the adherents of the Revolution, improperly called *Bonapartistes*; and thirdly, the bulk of the lower orders, who from situation are strangers to political discussion, and have no attachment except to the maintenance of peace and tranquillity. This very numerous and important part of the community may thus be considered by the Bourbons in the light of supporters.

As we might naturally imagine, we find the author very adverse to every kind of restraint or restrictive privilege. It is curious to see how general has been the adoption in Europe of privileged corporations, exclusion of strangers even of the same country, prolonged apprenticeships, &c.; and in France the establishment of corporate bodies with exclusive privileges is of very high antiquity, even prior to the reign of Louis IX. By the original statutes, a dealer in victuals (*comestibles*) could not sell wine or liquors; a grocer could not sell candles; and a clothier could not sell silks or linen. Similar prohibitions were established in every kind of commerce, all of which are now happily removed, and not likely, we trust, to be renewed, whatever may be the influence acquired by the aristocratic or clerical departments of the state. Let us hope that the attention of the continental governments will be turned to the general diffusion of education; and that we may see, in France, Germany, and other quarters, national establishments similar to those parish-schools which have been productive during the eighteenth century of so much good in Scotland.

‘The appointment of school-masters in all the parishes that want them is a measure of great urgency; since among the children, in many villages of France, not one in twenty would now be found able to read. If the government intends, as it certainly does, to accelerate the improvement of every kind of industry, the instruction of the lower classes in the towns and in the country is the



most effectual and expeditious means that it can employ. The theory and the practice of new methods of agriculture cannot become generally known, till the greatest part of the people can form a positive idea of them by reading. It cannot escape observation, also, that the influence of religion and its ministers is diminished in many parishes to an alarming degree; and the only hope that we can entertain of restoring this influence is by means of education, by which we can instruct the inhabitants of the country in the principles of morality, and the duties which they are required to perform towards their families, their neighbours, and their native land.'

Among the public sights that have attracted the attention of our travelling countrymen, is that great collection of machine-models in Paris which is known by the name of "*Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers*;" and the comparatively backward state of manufactures in France has induced the government to adopt measures for their advancement, which in this kingdom are left to the exertion of individual societies, or to the progressive amendments of the various undertakers of the branches in question:

'The *Conservatoire*, and *Schools for Arts and Trades*, are institutions which we owe to the Directory and to *Bonaparte's* government. The *Conservatoire*, by presenting to the public the models of machinery and tools of every kind used in manufactures, affords a powerful means of promoting the progressive advancement of all arts and trades; and the schools for arts and trades also contribute to accelerate this improvement. At these institutions, a great number of young people are instructed, not mechanically as they would be with common masters, but by rules and principles founded on a comprehensive theory, and will thus form much more skilful masters than their predecessors.

'It would be desirable that thirty or forty of those pupils who shewed most capacity and intelligence were sent, at the expence of government, to the foreign countries that are most famed for the superiority of their industry, such as *Switzerland*, *Germany*, *Belgium*, and above all *England*. They should be obliged to reside there at least four years, and at their return present to the schools a journal of their employments, their studies, and their observations. — It is remarkable that in all countries the farmers have less selfishness and more liberality in their ideas than manufacturers. In *England*, for instance, it is easy to procure a knowledge of all the methods practised in the cultivation of the ground, and in the breeding of horses and cattle; in fact they are explained in a variety of printed books: but the case is very different with regard to new processes in manufactures.'

*Cotton-manufactures.* — 'One of the most valuable presents that *India* and *America* have made to *Europe* is that of *Cotton*; a substance which, being of the greatest softness and pliability, takes any form that can be desired. The spinning, the weaving, the  
bleaching,

bleaching, and the stiffening of the cloth made from it, are performed with extraordinary ease; and it receives a colour equally permanent and agreeable to the eye. Cotton is alike eligible whether we weave stuffs of strength and solidity, such as velvets, dimities, and calicoes, or light stuffs, such as lawns and muslins. During several ages, Europe received all her supplies of cotton-stuffs by the fleets which she sent to India; and this trade was carried on by privileged companies. The Swiss and the English had the honour of making the first attempts at manufacturing the stuffs in Europe: but their fabrics were long in acquiring the same degree of perfection with those of India. Since 1780, their progress has been more rapid; and they now not only equal but surpass the products of the East, as well in the goodness of the stuffs, as in the evenness of the texture, the variety of the qualities and breadths, and the brilliancy of the white and other colours.

We extract, in the next place, a short account of two kinds of taxation conducted on a plan somewhat different from the method in this kingdom. That which in France is called "town-dues" is with us "dues extended all over the kingdom," in consequence of the greater activity of our Excise-department; and still farther from the circumstance of the more heavily taxed liquors being with us objects of importation, and not, as in France, the product of the soil. The grapes of that country are so easily converted into wine and brandy, that it would be a very difficult matter to effect the payment of an impost on the portion that is consumed by the peasant or land-holder.

*The Octrois or Town-dues.* — 'The customs collected before the Revolution at the gates of the towns were revived by the Directory. They fall on different agricultural products, such as wood, fodder, cattle, and above all, liquors; the consumption of which, in France as elsewhere, ensures the largest return.

'The reason ostensibly assigned for their re-establishment was the necessity of supplying the wants of the hospitals, the property of which had been sold; and on this account they obtained the specious name of *octrois de bienfaisance*. At first, all the duties were moderate, in order to avoid murmurs: but the augmentation was progressive and rapid. At Paris, the impost on wine was at first only six francs on the hectolitre, and it has been successively increased to twenty-five.

'The town-revenues in France are said to amount, taking the whole of the kingdom together, to about 3,200,000*l.*, of which nearly the half arises from funded property or rents, and the rest from the customs or *octrois*. Considerable savings might, no doubt, be made in the expences of the towns, particularly in those of Paris; which city has always followed the impulse and the orders of the government in lavishing money at public entertainments, and in the too frequent and too magnificent erection of public edifices. We may safely reckon the saving that might be

made in the expences of the towns at a fifth, that is, not less than 640,000*l.* out of 3,200,000*l.*'

*The Cadastre.* — 'During the reign of the Directory, and still more under the consular government, attempts were made to persuade the nation that the only way to remedy the unequal distribution of the land-tax was to submit all the lands to a *cadastre*, that is, to a general metrical survey, followed by a new valuation. This survey commenced fifteen years ago. At first, each *commune* was measured as a whole, without distinguishing the property of particular individuals: but this operation proved incomplete and unsatisfactory; and it was found necessary to begin it again in 1807. The plan of measuring and estimating the value of each property separately, however small, has prodigiously increased the length and the difficulty of the undertaking. Of forty thousand *communes* into which old France was divided, only six thousand have been surveyed in eight years; and therefore it is evident that the completion of the undertaking will require at least thirty-four years more. The expences of the survey, since its commencement, are said to have amounted to two millions and a half sterling; and, if it continues to cost 250,000*l.* annually for thirty-four years, the total expence will be between ten and eleven millions.'

The situation of England is very frequently introduced in these pages; and the author always preserves a tone of impartiality, even when treating of points on which, like other Frenchmen, he thinks that our government has caused material injury to his native soil. He entreats his countrymen to take example by us in the grand considerations of national education; attachment to the established government; good faith in mercantile dealings; and various other points to which he ascribes the rise and progressive advance of our prosperity. All this would be very well, did he not intermix these commendable exhortations with sundry erroneous views respecting the causes of our commercial success; attributing it to the magnitude of our navy; to the dominion of the sea acquired in time of war; to the sway which we have exercised over neutrals and foreigners; in short, to a variety of causes, which, however specious or however currently credited among ourselves, will be found on close inquiry to be nothing more than *raisons ostensibles*. We must accordingly set down this author as much less *à la hauteur de la science* than his countryman M. Say, and we are consequently obliged to treat his conclusions rather as those of a benevolent mind than a profound head.

It is a very common but a very erroneous notion among us that the French people are prone to war, and even disposed to feel impatient under a state of peace. Such ideas can have been suggested only by the vapouring of a few half-pay officers in the Palais-Royal, or by the disappointed individuals of the country

country who smart under the double effect of the contribution to the allies and the exclusion of themselves and their friends from public situations: but the great mass of the people have long been sick of hostility, and lamented it even in the most prosperous days of *Bonaparte*. If we enter the cottage of a French peasant or manufacturer, and converse with him on the prospect of a continued peace, we shall hear such expressions as "*Ah ! combien la France en a besoin, — à Dieu ne plaise qu'elle soit rompue.*"

' The demon of discord has reigned on the earth ever since the beginning of the world ; and men have at all times disputed, with arms in their hands, the possession of the lands, the goods, and the riches which they coveted. Rivalship in power, and, in modern times the possession of a colony, of a few *comptoirs*, or of a particular branch of trade, have been sufficient to set both the old and the new world in flames, and to give rise to long and ruinous wars. Louis XIV. has been very properly reproached with having undertaken several from motives of ambition, or of resentment to the Dutch; and the short war carried on by the Regent against Spain in 1719 has also been justly censured. France will feel for a long time to come the effects of the losses and disasters occasioned by the late wars with Spain and Russia; and we may safely say that all the wars undertaken by *Bonaparte* after the treaty of Amiens were unjust.

' War is acceptable to none but the military, who expect promotion from the prosecution of it; it is the object of all their wishes, and too often of their solicitations and intrigues: but it disquiets all classes of peaceful citizens; it disquiets all those who have fathers, sons, or brothers in the service; it alarms the consumers of merchandise, and admonishes them to diminish their expenditure; it contracts the demands in the market; it puts a stop to speculation and enterprize. Various manufactures, which flourish in peace, languish in inactivity during war, and are very inadequately replaced by the construction of arms and other military apparatus. The progress of things is totally changed; in short, capital takes quite a different direction. — The power which shall set the first example of establishing, in time of war, equitable laws, adapted to the interest of all nations, will deserve well of humanity and of future generations. France has already proclaimed truths and principles which are most conducive to the happiness of mankind, in the *Charte* which she has received from the King; and she has reduced them to practice with the approbation of all Europe. It will remain for her to give to the world the noble example of a solemn law, declaring that, " even in time of war, trade shall meet with no interruption on her part, and that hostile flags shall be admitted into her harbours with as little molestation as in the season of peace." '

With this extract we take leave of the moderate and well-intentioned writer, regretting only that the benevolence of his doctrines

doctrines should not have the advantage of a more concise and energetic style. A single volume, comprizing in plain and brief language the substance of all that is now scattered into two, and omitting a variety of prolix and unnecessary explanations, would have been a very useful manual for the French public; and it might also have tended greatly to correct the erroneous ideas prevalent in other countries with regard to the interior condition of our *quondam* opponents. We are sorry that the author has not given his name to his work; since, whatever may be its demerits in point of composition, it cannot fail to raise his moral character in the opinion of all who are alive to the importance of a pacific and unambitious course of policy.

ART. II. M. DE PRADT on the Congress of Vienna.

[Article concluded from the Review for August, p. 380.]

WE closed our last article on M. DE PRADT's work by an extract from his observations in favour of the policy which had dictated the establishment of the new kingdom of the Netherlands. On that truly British subject, the opinion of the author is so pointed and so clearly expressed, that we have felt ourselves tempted to read his arguments repeatedly, and to look with a more kindly eye both on his deficiency as a writer and on his political sins. The farther study of his book, also, if not productive of equal gratification with the passages to which we now allude, will be found to a considerable degree satisfactory, from the enlightened views that it exhibits with regard to the new principles which ought to regulate the policy of Europe. We are now to turn our attention to a topic which has been the cause of very prolonged discussions both in past and present ages: viz.

*The Germanic body.*—This great confederacy received its late form in the well-known negotiations which ended with the peace of Westphalia in 1648, and which were deemed master-strokes of policy by the diplomatists of the age. Germany had been wasted by a war of thirty years, originating in the undue pretensions of the house of Austria, and prolonged by the interference of France. The wish of the German nation, and of the majority of the negotiators, was to constitute a powerful federative body; which, while it acknowledged Austria as its head, should be independent of the usurpations of that power, at the same time that it should be exempted from the interference of France or any dangerous neighbour. These associations, however, always imperfect in their own nature,

nature, were in this case soon shaken by the progress of circumstances ; Sweden falling from its high elevation ; Prussia taking an unexpected rank ; and Russia rising from a state of apparent insignificance to be a power of the very first order. Even before this change took place, the radical defects of the federative system had become apparent during the great struggles with France which were excited by the overpowering ambition of Louis XIV. That prince had found means to detach from the common cause several members of the Empire, and in particular the Elector of Bavaria ; an example which was renewed with still more disastrous consequences by Louis XV. in the war of 1741. After that war, the influence acquired by Prussia, partly owing to the talents of Frederick II., and more perhaps to the solid foundation laid during the prudent government of his father, enabled the states of the north of Germany to fix their views with confidence on a power capable of protecting them against the encroachments of the Imperial house ; and from that time forwards, Germany was divided into two great parts, of which, after the Bavarian campaign in 1778, the Prussian was not inferior to the Austrian. It is remarkable that, in this new connection, difference of religion proved no cause of alienation, and that the inhabitants of Germany seemed to have forgotten the old distinction into Catholic and Protestant leagues :

‘ The Empire was an august solemn body, always agitated but never active. It looked like an antient palace which had become inconvenient as a residence, and it has crumbled down in a great measure under the blows of the French Revolution. Its head has abandoned it, and some of the members have sought protection elsewhere. Entire classes of authorities, such as the electorates and ecclesiastical sovereignties, have disappeared ; and other authorities have passed into the ordinary condition of subjects. The empire has therefore ceased to exist, and was in this state when the Congress of Vienna commenced. It seemed consequently that the Congress was not required to treat of it as a collective body, but of the separate powers of which it was composed, or rather that occupied the territory which had formerly constituted the empire.

‘ These powers experience at the present day the double necessity of guarding themselves against France and against Russia, so as to prevent the one from repeating its aggressions, and the other from making new inroads : but with this difference, that, while France may attack their independence, Russia may threaten their existence. It was therefore necessary so to organize Germany as to exclude France and Russia from it for ever. The Germanic body has little to apprehend from the ambition of either Austria or Prussia ; since, on the first step that either of them might venture

venture to take, all the rest of the empire would declare against the aggressor, and would be supported by France and Russia.

'Some of the sovereigns of Germany have acquired higher titles than they formerly enjoyed. This is a disadvantage to the dignity of the throne, a dignity which ought not to be lavished nor impaired; since, as rarity constitutes the value of many things, so it is because kings are few that they are held in honour. At the same time, this multiplication of thrones is a disadvantage to the people, because the elevation of rank requires a correspondent augmentation of expence; a King must keep a more numerous army and a more brilliant court than an Elector; an Elector, than a Landgrave. Emulation in luxury also introduces itself at the same time among the different ranks of society; so that nations and subjects, all persons in fact, soon find themselves equally burdened. Unluckily, there was not in Germany a sufficient basis to give a suitable magnitude to these new royalties; the ground was already occupied:—but the Congress seems to have quite forgotten this principle when she reduced Saxony, already too small for a kingdom, to half its extent. It cannot be too often repeated that, if we must have kings, they ought to be powerful; all petty sovereignties being but so many deductions from the grand sovereignty, from the general power of Europe; they are incumbrances in its way. As to Germany, the fundamental rule should be to simplify its system; the Congress of Vienna ought to have endeavoured to complete what the treaty of Luneville had begun.'

Austria next attracts the attention of M. DE P., who considers that power as the most amply recompensed of any in the late appropriation of the spoils of France: but he has no objection to her acquisitions, except those in Italy, a country separated by natural barriers from her other dominions, and inhabited by a race of people entirely different in language and manners. Her advocates have represented the seizure of Italy as an indemnity for her losses, and a compensation for the acquisitions which her neighbours were making around her: but it may well be questioned whether any farther indemnity was due to her; and at all events it was not in a proportion which called for the sacrifice of Italy, and with it so glaring an infraction of the true system of Europe:

'Austria has recovered the whole of the Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Carniola, what she had lost of Carinthia, Istria, and all Dalmatia. To these are to be added the islands in the Adriatic. Should not the restoration of such valuable possessions have been deemed by her a most fortunate as it was a most unexpected event? and had she not cause to congratulate herself on getting rid of so alarming a neighbourhood as Illyria in the state of a French province? It appears, then, that Austria might have been confined without injustice to the limits which we have assigned to her: but, not contented with such ample restitution, she returned to her Italian system,

system, and, seizing the favourable opportunity, has awarded to herself in the bulk all that she had till then possessed only in detail. She has thus fallen on Italy; and, without regard to that country, to France, or to Europe, she has made in it the immense encroachments which we have pointed out, and which overturn all its connections. Now this is the very thing that ought to have been prevented; and, if other states were not able to oppose entirely her views of aggrandizement, there ought at least to have been assigned to her a portion of territory which would have caused no injury to Europe, and which might even have been eventually profitable to the latter. These concessions should have been taken from Bosnia, Croatia, and Servia, countries naturally belonging to Dalmatia, and Austrian Sclavonia. They are only nominally subject to the sovereign of Constantinople, whose authority is continually disputed and opposed in them; and their annexation would have formed a magnificent acquisition to Austria.

At a moment in which every thing was deemed good that was directed against *Bonaparte*, Austria formed a connection with the King of Naples. It was necessary, cost what it would, to secure an ally and remove an enemy in that quarter. The possession and even the enlargement of his territory were therefore guaranteed, and a good understanding apparently prevailed between the two courts almost to the end of the Congress. This was not by any means contrary to the policy of Austria. On her plan of obtaining the sole disposal of Italy, she would naturally wish to keep the Royal family of France at a distance from Naples and Parma; because, were they to reign in both, the Austrian states in Italy would be so compressed between the possessions of that house that they might be exposed to great trouble at some future time. This arises from the nature of things, which is our only proper consideration, as we do not mean to treat of the feelings of individuals, which are necessarily transient:—but, had the King of Naples been from situation inimical to France, still more had he placed his dependence on Austria, and found it his interest to remain attached to that power, Austria would have had nothing to fear on the side of Naples, and might have reckoned on a faithful ally in a quarter in which, as circumstances now stand, she finds a dangerous neighbour.—This statement serves to explain the motives which influenced Austria in her conduct towards *Murat*.

We were somewhat startled on observing one of M. DE P.'s chapters intitled *Division de l'Europe en deux Zones*, but were agreeably surprized to find this high-sounding title indicative of nothing more than a parallel, in a strain sufficiently moderate, between the north and the south of Europe. He considers the northern states as much more favourable to the promotion of liberal opinions than the southern:—he laments particularly the lot of Spain in falling under a superstitious and tyrannical government, at the moment when the labours and sufferings of the people merited so different a fate;—and he



he regrets also the re-establishment of the Jesuits, and other acts of a similar nature, on the part of a Pontiff who had raised himself so high in public opinion by his courageous resistance to the tyranny of *Bonaparte*. The great burden of his complaint, however, to which he returns most frequently, and with the greatest emphasis, is the humiliated condition of Italy, placed as that country now is under the controul of Austria. The late marriage of the Duke de *Berri* to a Neapolitan princess is sufficiently indicative of a determination in the house of Bourbon to cultivate a footing in that country, and points to a renewal, at some future period, of those conflicts between France and Austria which have so often deluged the Italian soil with blood since the days of Charles V. and his rival Francis. The more we examine the origin of the Continental wars during the last two or three centuries, the more we shall find reason for ascribing them to the divided state of that country and Germany; the weakness of the smaller principalities inviting their ambitious neighbours to make a sudden irruption into their territories, and to commence struggles likely at first to be of short duration, but which have gradually drawn in other powers and led to warfare on a very extended scale. It is proper to render to the French nation, at least the enlightened part of it, the justice of acknowledging that they scarcely regretted the loss of their Italian acquisitions: their great wish, like that of M. de P., being to see that country separate, independent, united under one head, and consequently able to defend herself against aggression. Such a state of things would have secured both them and their posterity from a participation in future quarrels in that region, while it would have afforded the best pledge for the tranquillity and prosperity of Italy herself.

‘ By the partition of Italy between France and what was called the kingdom of Italy, that country lost one of the finest opportunities since the days of the Romans, of becoming an independent state. If *Bonaparte*, instead of attacking the Pope’s territory, Tuscany, and Genoa, with the most imprudent violence, had united the whole of Upper Italy into one state, it would have been strong enough to defend itself, without being able to attack or conquer others; because its hostile operations must have been limited to France or Austria, against which, combined or separate, it would always have been too weak. It would have resembled the new kingdom of the Netherlands, which forms a bulwark to other states, so constituted as to make friends every where and enemies no where.

‘ The geographical situation and the political interest of the country have always shewn the propriety of a confederation among the Italian states, which might place the forces of the whole at the disposal

disposal of one head. The system of such a confederation was extremely simple; it consisted of only three states, Upper Italy, the Papal dominions, and the kingdom of Naples. No one of these had any motive for encroaching on the others, and Italy at large was delivered from the yoke of any foreign power; while it was the mutual interest of France and Austria to prevent each the interference of the other. A state so constituted could give umbrage to no one. What a misfortune that a combination so simple and so natural was unable to fix the attention of the man whose influence was then all-powerful! This fatal oversight has plunged Italy into lasting perplexity.

Genoa is now annexed to Piedmont, notwithstanding her aversion to that state. The King of Sardinia has repassed the mountains, and resumed the possession of the territory which gave birth to his illustrious family. The last descendant of the house of Este occupies a little sovereignty at Modena; and on his death the race becomes extinct, and an Austrian prince takes the succession. All the rest of the north of Italy has fallen into the grasping hands of Austria. — This new order of things is contrary at once to the welfare of Italy, to the wishes of its inhabitants, and to the interests of Europe. In the present state of affairs, the King of Sardinia comes to the northward of the Alps, which ought never to have been the case. These mountains ought to serve as an everlasting barrier between France and Italy; nature has intended them as such; and every other arrangement ought to give way to this destination. A deviation from this rule can only renew the sanguinary and unprofitable wars which have equally wasted the two countries, affording opportunities for contraband trade and sanctuaries to crimes. The principality of Savoy can never be defended against France, but is quite open towards her and quite separate from Italy. Again, the King of Sardinia is too weak to oppose either France or Austria: he is a dwarf between two giants. Even when the access to his states was defended by the strongest fortresses in Europe, this jailor of the Alps was unable to keep the keys: what will he do now that his country is open and defenceless on the side of Lombardy, and Turin not in a state to support a siege? The acquisition of Genoa gives him no real strength; and still less any strength relatively to that of his neighbours. When Austria shall come as far as the Ticino, what will the King of Sardinia be able to do against her oppressive weight? Will he not naturally have recourse to France? Here, then, is Italy embroiled afresh by the Germans and French; as if that country could no more rid herself of the descendants of the Cimbri and Teutones than of those of Brennus.

‘ If it were impossible to prevent Austria from maintaining a footing in Italy, care should have been taken at least to keep her within some bounds. She ought to have been hindered from passing the Po on the side of the Papal Legations, and her establishment in the petty sovereignties of Modena, Tuscany, and Parma, ought to have been prevented. Additional power should have been thrown into the hands of the King of Sardinia; and a remedy should

should have been sought for the evil inseparable from every species of interference in Italy on the part of Austria. The perpetual and invariable principle of Europe ought to have been not to allow Austria any more than France to set a foot in Italy; and the repose of Europe therefore required that a kingdom should have been established in Italy, beginning at the Isonzo, and bounded by the Alps and the papal territory. Italy would then have consisted of three states; this kingdom, the dominions of the Pope, and those of Naples.

Reason, and we might almost say the nature of things, awarded the throne of Italy to the house of Savoy; and the Italians would have considered themselves as honoured in having for their first king, and for their perpetual sovereigns, princes of a house which has produced so many illustrious men, which is connected with the most flattering recollections, and which in this high rank exhibited to Italy one of her own children in the person of her sovereign. By neglecting this establishment, the system of Europe has been mis-managed, a false direction has been given to it, and one of its most important parts has been paralyzed: Europe has nourished the germ of frequent wars; and even Austria herself has acquired a source of great embarrassment, in having to guard a large mass of subjects of doubtful affection; while a ground of endless complaint has been given to Italy.

If we cannot refuse to take an interest in any nation that has lost its sovereign and its independence, to whom do we owe a more sincere sympathy than to the Italians? The dawn of liberty had begun to shine on them; its first glimpses had made a total change on this soil, so long loaded with foreign chains; and the Italians, united into one family, had directed their affections to a common object, and appeared with glory on the theatre of the world from which they had been so long excluded. If the Saxons are an object of pity, the Italians are much more so. The Saxon inhabits a country similar to Prussia; he speaks the same language; he participates in the same tastes; he is a German, like the Prussian,—under a different government, it is true, but still he is a German. The Italian, on the other hand, is neither a Hungarian nor an Austrian, nor a Pole; yet, born under a different sky, and familiar with other objects from his birth, he must accustom his ears to the harsh sounds of the German and Sclavonian languages; and he must put a restraint on his eyes and all his senses, if he would not be disgusted with the backwardness of the places to which he is led, and the customs with which he meets. Such are the people who called on Europe and the Congress to interest themselves in their behalf. By neglecting them, we have laid a ground for deep and permanent sorrow.

It is by no means certain, moreover, that Austria will be always a gainer by this arrangement, however advantageous it may appear at present; because Italy will become expensive to keep; and a considerable number of the Austrian troops must be maintained in that quarter, which will produce a proportionate diminution of strength on the side of Russia. This system is as much Anti-

Anti-European as Anti-Italian or Anti-Gallican. It cannot be too often repeated that Austria, like Prussia, has only one great interest, that of keeping a watchful eye on Russia : but, to perform this duty well, she ought not to divide her force, or intrust her home-defence to discontented subjects. — It may be said that Austria will grant Italy a liberal constitution, and put her on a similar footing with Hungary. Let her do so ; whatever she may give to Italy as a consolation, it will become a weapon against herself. Wait only until Austria shall be embarrassed, and allow the instigations of foreigners to exert their influence, and it will be seen what millions of Italians, taught to discuss their interests and their rights, will do.

‘ The court of Naples on its late re-instatement magnanimously declared against every idea of retaliation, and Naples was not afflicted by being made the theatre of a spectacle similar to that of 1799. The court of Florence also has shewn, throughout its whole conduct, that mildness and that liberality which characterize a truly paternal government. We might be tempted to say that, since the time of the house of Medicis, something has prevailed in the air of Tuscany which disposes men to moderation and mutual benevolence.’

Our readers will not fail to have observed, from the above extracts, that, after all our solicitude to avoid redundancy, the work of M. DE P. often presents a recurrence of ideas sometimes the same and sometimes manifesting very slight shades of difference. Another and perhaps a greater trespass is a disposition to push an argument to an extreme. Russia is brought forwards, page after page, as the grand object of political terror to Europe ; making no allowance or deduction for the deficiency of her revenue, the scattered state of her population, the possibility of future dissension in so wide an empire, or, in short, any of those causes which a cool observer would, without hesitation, admit to be likely to form a counterpoise in the opposite scale. A similar animadversion is applicable to the lofty tone used in speaking of the naval preponderance of England, and of the power conferred by it to injure the navigation of other countries. Again, in treating of the late acquisitions of Austria, M. DE P. is certainly too confident when he represents her (Vol. ii. p. 5.) as having wholly overcome the difficulties of too extended a frontier, and as having in future so little to dread from any neighbour except Russia. All these circumstances form considerable deductions from the value of the work, because the reader must be embarrassed in deciding with regard to the length to which he should concur with a writer whose words evidently go beyond his deliberate intention. This habit of amplification is particularly injurious to an English reader, accustomed as he is to take words in their literal sense, and unskilled in the

practice so well known in France of believing only a part of the assertions made in writing or conversation. Still, M. DE P.'s publication is deserving of attention, as one of the fullest exposures of the views of the *Liberalistes* in France on the subject of foreign policy. — We proceed to quote some passages relative to the great Colossus of the north.

‘ Since the occupation of Finland, Russia does not come in contact with Sweden except under the polar ice. Here, then, she is delivered from a troublesome neighbour. The peaceful system of the Turks frees her from apprehensions on the side of Constantinople; and in fact they and not the Russians have reason to be alarmed. Russia borders on East Prussia, and hems it in for a considerable extent; and Koenigsberg is more in Russia than it is in Prussia. She also touches on the frontiers of Austria, and, by crossing the Vistula, has established herself almost in the centre of Europe. Was ever any thing more alarming! It appears that the friendship and gratitude of Prussia facilitated these arrangements. — In vain will it be said that Russia has not financial resources to prosecute a long war; for when had she finances, and when has she ever ceased to make war? Besides, with so many soldiers as Russia possesses, are not the finances of her neighbours exposed to considerable risk?

‘ It was, then, against these aggrandizements of Russia that the Congress ought to have directed the force of its arguments, its remonstrances, its opposition. — It would have been highly interesting to see the south of Europe call on the north to cease to alarm her, and at last to put an end to her incroachments. It would have formed a very different subject of debate from that which was furnished by the case of Saxony and other questions still more insignificant. In neglecting this capital point, the Congress has completely mistaken the most important interest of Europe: it did not know the key-stone of the arch of its own building. However dangerous the establishment of the Russian power on the Vistula might have been, yet, had it stopped there, at least one additional barrier would have been obtained. The public safety required that river to be lined with the means of defence, nearly as France has raised fortifications in Alsace against Germany, and as the latter has erected others on the banks of the Rhine against France.

‘ We have seen men who certainly consulted only the generosity of their own private sentiments, — a generosity which has little connection with the ordinary course of affairs, — who did not hesitate to call on the Emperor of Russia to restore the independence of Poland, to form it again into a separate state, and satisfy himself with having thus repaired the injustice of its partition. These politicians did not observe that they would renew the system against which that prince had taken up arms, the system which had cost him Moscow, and which would exclude him from the affairs of Europe, to which he would have had no access after he had lost Poland; since, in its independent state, that country makes Russia an Asiatic power. Besides, how could any one imagine that

that the Emperor of Russia would give up his finest provinces, peopled by more than seven millions of inhabitants? All this was highly chimerical.

‘It is by no means clear that Russia would have made a good calculation for herself in uniting the whole of Poland under her sceptre; because Poland, taken altogether, forms a very great mass of population and territory. Feeling her strength, and tormented with the desire of independence and of resuming her existence as a nation, Poland would have been in considerable danger of returning to her antient state of turbulence: while the powers interested in creating trouble to Russia would not have failed to take advantage of these circumstances to renew the work of *Bonaparte*.

‘It has also been proposed to keep up the duchy of Warsaw as a separate state; in which case it would have been rather an object of compassion than of congratulation; for nothing could be more pitiful and insignificant than that little territory, surrounded as it was by the three great powers, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and exposed to the conflicts and demands of all. It may be laid down as a general rule that Poland ought either to be entire or be divided as equally as it can be among its neighbours. In one of these ways only can it serve to maintain the balance of Europe: but in no case ought Russia to pass the Vistula; otherwise, the principle on which the safety of Europe depends receives irreparable injury. Such, however, is the state in which the Congress of Vienna has placed her.’

With regard to Prussia, M. DE P. discovers the same kindly feeling as respecting the new kingdom of the Netherlands: — she is, in his opinion, highly necessary to the maintenance of the balance of power, while she is at the same time without the means of seriously threatening the independence of her neighbours. It is to the credit of the French as a nation that, notwithstanding the rough usage experienced by them from the Prussian military in the two invasions, they speak of them with little acrimony, and are in general ready to acknowledge that these irregularities were nothing more than they might expect after the tyrannical and ruinous conduct of *Bonaparte* when in possession of Prussia. That people were by no means in a disposition to submit patiently to such treatment at the hands of foreigners: they bore it indeed for a time in silence: but, when the approach of the Russian armies enabled them to cherish the hopes of independence and revenge, they took the start of all the allies in the extent to which they carried their exertions and sacrifices.

‘The European public were not aware of the ardent patriotism cherished in the breasts of the Prussians since the days of Frederick II., nor of the spirit and vigour inspired by the desire of avenging the honour of standards that had been so long unsullied:

sullied : but we have now seen in what waves of blood they have washed away their indignities. Neither were we apprized of the degree of public spirit existing between Koenigsberg and Berlin. There lay the resources of Prussia. With what vigour has this state roused itself? It is Prussia which has restored Europe to its former situation : — it was General *Von Yorck*, disobeying his King but fulfilling the wish of the nation. Without Prussia, indignant at her humiliation, and inflamed with an ardent desire to resume her proper rank, Russia would not have pursued so far as she did that victory which the infatuation of her enemy and the effects of the climate put into her hands : — without Prussia, Austria might still have been hesitating, and Vienna might not have seen a Congress assembled within her walls.

‘ When Holland was divided into two parties, Prussia rendered essential services to the house of Orange. This interference will not now be necessary ; a better order of things is established in that country : — but, if the state which the Orange family is called to govern were to be attacked, it would be the policy of Prussia to fly to its relief, and no more allow the smallest portion to be detached from it, than it would be the policy of the Netherlands to permit the smallest retrenchment to be made from Prussia.

‘ In her present condition, Prussia is divided into three distinct states ; Polish Prussia, German Prussia, and Prussia on the Rhine and the Maese. She is thus a country and no country ; and of this her government is well aware ; it sees enemies in every direction, and frontiers in none. At Memel and Koenigsberg, Russia presses her on a narrow point ; and Austria intersects her possessions in the middle ; for on coming from Bohemia we arrive in a moment in the heart of Prussia. France is in contact with those territories that are separated from the body of the monarchy ; her dominions are scattered in small parcels along a line of immense extent, without connection and without depth ; and she is still the same Prussia, long and slender, as when *Voltaire* called her a *pair of garters*. Prussia resembles those houses in Berlin which as yet consist only of a wall towards the street : this state has only a *façade* to present to Europe. Prussia insisted strongly on obtaining the whole of Saxony ; and she acted from a conviction of the inconveniences arising from the dispersion and want of connection of her different provinces. She felt that her approximation to France inverted the nature of her relations with that power, and made her pass from a state of friendship to a state of enmity ; for neighbour and enemy in the case of nations are synonymous terms.

We conclude our extracts by a passage which forms a kind of sequel to the one just quoted, and exhibits some strong additional arguments for the expediency of uniting the whole of Saxony with the Prussian dominions :

‘ Prussia cannot flatter herself that the personal friendship between her sovereign and the Emperor of Russia would influence the permanent condition of the two countries, and be handed down,

down, from age to age, to Russians and Prussians. It is not on individual affection, but on permanent interests, that the connection of different states can be built in a durable manner. — Russia is not like the other states of Europe, which may be made to contract their limits by a vigorous blow struck by a neighbouring potentate. Her movements are never retrograde. The last experiment in this way will put all such attempts out of the question for a long time to come. Now Prussia is the first power placed in the way of this torrent, and through her territory it will hold its course. Austria is more out of the line, and the access through the mountains of Bohemia and Hungary is more difficult: — but Prussia is without defence; the Oder does not begin to form a barrier till below Breslau; and Berlin stands between it and the Elbe, so that Prussia Royal is almost unconnected with the rest of the monarchy.

‘ Prussia is thus perpetually exposed to imminent danger, yet she is the barrier of Europe. It is therefore the interest of Europe to augment her power, either by giving her additions of territory or by affording her facilities in connecting the scattered parts of her dominions. Europe should refuse nothing to Prussia, but, on the contrary, should render her every assistance in making such arrangements as may conduce to consolidate her power and give her expedition in her movements. Prussia is in the highest degree the guardian-power of Europe; she is to her upon the Oder what the King of Sardinia was to Italy at the foot of the Alps. Prussia will never be strong enough, — that is, if for her own preservation, not for that of Europe against the Colossus of the north.

‘ Prussia is no longer the enemy of Austria; the power of Russia henceforth renders them allies. The former causes of jealousy have disappeared on the approach of a greater danger; and the struggle is not now, as in the old quarrels, for a point of superiority, but for existence itself. By the cession of the territory which Russia obtained in Poland, Prussia lost the grand duchy of Warsaw. By the same arrangement, she became exposed to the first attack of Russia. She therefore fell on Saxony, in which she perceived two things; — first an indemnity; secondly, the means of resisting a foreign attack by the connection which the possession of that country established between the different parts of the monarchy.

‘ Whatever personal interest might enter into this system, it was not in fact less favourable to the interests of Europe than to those of Prussia. It corrected the two great defects of the present system of Prussia, the intersection of her states by the interposition of Saxony, and their prolongation all the way to the Maese; a circumstance contrary to every principle of interest, whether of Prussia, of the Netherlands, of France, or of Germany. There could have been no objection to restore to Prussia her possessions in Poland and in Germany, with the exception of Clèves, which is within the natural boundaries of Holland; it would even have been agreeable to the principles of the Congress and had



Prussia, after having attained this object, attempted to encroach on other countries, and been compelled to observe the rules of good neighbourhood, every body would have applauded her defeat: but that she should remain stripped of her antient property, and disappointed of new acquisitions while her powerful neighbours and old rivals were laying hands on every object that suited them, was a course highly objectionable. In leaving Saxony in her present state of partition, instead of stripping the King completely of his possessions, the Congress has done too much and too little.

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ART. III. *Mémoires Historiques, &c.*; i. e. Historical Memoirs of the Revolution in Spain; by the Author of "The Congress of Vienna," &c. &c. (M. DE PRADT, formerly Archbishop of Mechlin.) 8vo. pp. 430. Paris. 1816.

FOR the third time we have now to notice a political publication by this indefatigable writer. Acting at intervals in the affairs of Spain in a diplomatic capacity, he had opportunities of hearing personally the observations of *Bonaparte*; so that the character of the volume before us resembles more that of his account of his embassy to Warsaw than that of his strictures on the Congress of Vienna; and, less rich than the latter in general views on the policy of Europe, it is more interesting to the numerous class of readers who are on the alert to gratify their curiosity by taking an inside view of that cabinet which, in its day, was so replete with terror to its neighbours. 'I am not conscious,' says M. DE PRADT, 'of having violated any duty in communicating information on an event which is now definitively accomplished; or in bringing before the world actors who have either disappeared from the scene or are elevated to a royal station. The truth may be freely spoken with regard to those who have either ceased to figure in public life or who have attained a high point of political exaltation.' The reader is not, however, to conclude from the general tone of this declaration, that M. DE P. was in possession of the secret history of *all* the proceedings of the late French Ruler respecting Spain, a knowlege to that extent being incompatible with the second-rate station which he filled; and our testimony in favour of his statements is merely that they bear no symptoms of exaggeration, and that he had evidently a turn for making sagacious remarks on the portion of official intelligence which really came within his view. A considerable part of the volume also is compiled from other accounts: but the whole is brought into connection by the aid of circumstances within the knowlege of the writer; and on some occasions we have, as in the first mentioned of his works, a detail of the actual conversations that took place with *Bonaparte*.

' Among the documents (says the author) which I have consulted to fill up the blanks in my narrative, I am to mention the tracts published by M. *de Cevallos* and M. *Escoiquiz* \*, both highly valuable, but to be received with some qualification; the former allowing himself to be occasionally misled by a discontented temper, while the latter is not always exempt from omission and oversight. These tracts, with the publication of M. *Azanza* and *O'Farrell*, and the printed letters of the Queen of Spain, furnish to a certain extent valuable materials for the history of this interesting æra. The military details also cannot fail to be ample; so that the point chiefly requiring the attention of future collectors is an historical notice of the *Guerrillas*, comprizing the date and manner of their formation, their probable numbers, their leaders, and their mode of warfare.'

At a time when the author's personal comfort is so much dependent on the good will of the Bourbon-government, we can scarcely expect him to lay any part of the blame of the mis-management of Spanish affairs on the late King or the Queen. He has in fact no scruple in casting the odium of the whole on their unworthy favourite :

' Who was the author of all the misfortunes of Spain? was it the King? No. That prince, endowed with soundness of judgment, correct in his moral habits, and a lover of his people, would at any other time have reigned, perhaps without splendour, but also without danger : but fortune had brought to his court a man who had in himself alone the seeds of the dissolution of twenty governments. That man was D. *Manuel Godoy*, too well known by the title of the Prince of the Peace. The European public has long been apprized of the means by which he opened his way to domineer over his country, and acquired an absolute and firmly established authority over the mind of his master. Differing from other favourites, who from the very circumstance of predilection on the part of one of a royal pair generally become an object of aversion to the other, the Prince of the Peace seemed to have established an emulation between the King and the Queen in loading him with favours.'

*Don Manuel Godoy*, Prince of the Peace, was born at Badajos of a noble family, in 1768, received his education in that town, and entered the Body-guards in 1787. After eight months of service, he was made *garçon major* of the Spanish company in 1788; Exempt of the same company in 1789; Adjutant-General of the Body-guards, and Grand Cross of the Order of Charles III. in 1791; Lieutenant-General in the army, Duke of Alcudia, Major of the Body-guards, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Knight of the Golden Fleece, in 1792; Prince of the Peace in 1795; and retired from the ministry in 1798. He did not after this date take the title of Minister, but he always directed the affairs. He was nominated General in chief of the armies appointed to act against Portugal

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\* See Monthly Review for April 1816, p. 349.

in 1801; Generalissimo by sea and land in 1802; and Admiral of Spain and the Indies, with the title of Highness, in 1807. In 1797 he had married Donna *Maria Teresa* of Bourbon, daughter of the Infant Don Louis, brother of King Charles III. Her mother, Donna *Josepha de Villabriga y Drummond*, was of an illustrious family.

' *M. de Cevallos*, a native of Asturias, was indebted for his elevation to the Prince of the Peace, who gave him one of his cousins in marriage. He was Minister to Charles IV. in the department of foreign affairs, then to Ferdinand, next to Joseph, afterward to the Junta, next to the Cortez, and finally to Ferdinand again; dismissed on the 25th of January 1816; and recalled on the 27th of the same month and year.

' *M. Escoiquiz* was appointed by the Prince of the Peace teacher of Belles Lettres to the Prince of Asturias, then at the age of thirteen: but he was dismissed from court for having taken the liberty of addressing to the King some remonstrances on the administration of the Prince of the Peace, as he informs us in his own work.—The King afterward gave him the preferment of archdeacon in the church of Toledo. He continued to correspond with his pupil, and was the author of all the steps in which originated the trial at the Escorial (in October 1807). He was banished on that occasion, but recalled after the events of Aranjuez; acted as chief adviser to the Prince of Asturias at Bayonne; was decorated with the order of Charles III.; remained with the Prince at Valençay; was afterward removed from that residence by *Bonaparte*; banished to Bourges for several years; recalled by Ferdinand when he returned to Spain; continued his minister for several months, but has since been exiled from court.

' The system of *Escoiquiz* had constantly been to attach the prince to Napoleon by a marriage, and to oppose his influence to that of the Prince of the Peace. He was the true author of the journey to Bayonne.

' To return to *Godoy*. The state given up to his discretion, honours and riches heaped on his head, distinctions exhausted and proving unequal to the desire entertained to raise him still more, his introduction into the Royal family by marriage with a princess of the blood;—this was the fortune of a man who, in this rapid elevation, presented to Europe an example of that species of favouritism which had disappeared for several centuries. Now if this subjection of the King, for so it properly was, could have been explained by those exalted qualities which, according to the expression of *la Maréchale D'Ancre*, constitute the magic which gives strong minds the controul over the feeble;—if the favourite had been endowed with some traits of *Ximenes* or *Richelieu*!—alas! there was nothing in the Prince of the Peace to justify these bounties of fortune; he was only a proof of her blindness; he wanted even that imposing exterior which was supposed to have been the original cause of his elevation. His look, if in any way prepossessing, could be so only from a comparison with his countrymen; among whom comeliness is seldom to be found, particularly in the higher ranks.

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' If, however, he enjoyed completely the favour of his master, he was hated by the people to an equal degree. Arrogant and corrupt, prostituting honours and places to unworthy minions, driving away useful servants by violence or insult, reducing his sovereigns to a state of servitude, making apprehension and jealousy take root in their family, enfeebling the state by the follies of his administration:—such was the conduct of the man who domineered over the Spanish monarchy; such were the nature, the means, and the fruits of his government. Yet justice requires us to admit that, if he had all the vices and faults of a favourite, he had not the cruelty of a tyrant; he removed his competitors, it is true, and he sent into exile the men for whom the nation declared itself, but he abstained from shedding their blood.'

In 1806, when Prussia assumed a tone of defiance towards *Bonaparte*, symptoms of a reviving spirit of independence appeared in the Spanish councils; and in the beginning of October a proclamation was unexpectedly issued, calling on the inhabitants to come forwards to the aid of government with voluntary gifts of horses, recruits, and other military supplies. This proclamation, which is quoted literally by M. DE PRADT, (pp. 13, 14.) furnished a great handle to *Bonaparte* in his subsequent arguments on the necessity of transferring the government of Spain to a dynasty that would not attack France when engaged in a remote contest. "I received this document," he said, "on the field of battle at Jena, and I vowed on the spot that the Spanish government should repent it." This hostile proclamation was perpetually introduced by *Bonaparte* in the conversation with *Escoiquiz*; and M. DE PRADT declares that he can find no traces at a prior date of hostile projects towards Spain on the part of the French Emperor. Accordingly, it is from this time that we find him following up the plan of weakening Spain by sending her troops on distant service into Denmark and Italy.

The succeeding measures of *Bonaparte* towards Spain form, perhaps, the completest display that we have ever had of his diplomatic artifice. No sooner had he returned from Tilsit to France than he concluded the treaty of Fontainebleau, by which he professed to parcel out Portugal between the Prince of the Peace and a Prince of the royal family of Spain. The King of Spain was by this notable compact to be recognized as "Emperor of both Americas" on the conclusion of a general peace, or in three years at the farthest; and, by a secret article, a body of 28,000 French troops was to enter Spain, and to pass with a body of Spaniards into Portugal. A farther corps of 40,000 French was to be assembled at Bayonne, with leave to enter Spain and march on Portugal if the English should threaten the latter.

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At this time, two parties existed in the Spanish court; the King, the Queen, and the Prince of the Peace on the one side; on the other, Ferdinand, the heir-apparent, acting by the suggestion of *Escoiquiz*, and encouraged by the good wishes of the people. The Prince had begun to concert measures for the reduction of the power of the favourite when the latter discovered his manœuvres, and found means to alarm the old King with the project of a plot not only against his authority but against his life; and it was on this occasion that the public were surprized with the singular and at the same time inexplicable paper which issued from the royal palace in the end of October 1807. *Escoiquiz* was forthwith removed from court, and a stop put to his proposed scheme; which was (as we have before stated) no other than a marriage between the Prince and a princess of *Bonaparte's* family, (Lucien's eldest daughter,) on the calculation that an alliance in so powerful a quarter would form an effectual counterpoise to the intrigues of the Prince of the Peace.

‘ Immediately after the removal of *Escoiquiz*, Napoleon, taking advantage of the facilities which the treaty of Fontainebleau afforded him for introducing troops into Spain on pretence of fulfilling its conditions, sent in that direction several corps which had remained in France during the war with Prussia; and, as early as the middle of the winter of 1808, the road leading to Bordeaux and Spain was covered with soldiers of all descriptions. Then were formed what were called marching regiments, and Poitiers was one of the principal places of rendezvous. That town was made a *place d'armes*, in which troops were assembled, equipped, and organized. I lived there at the time, and for several months I had opportunities of seeing a great number of superior officers, among whom were several of distinction: but I must say that I never heard a single word among them which shewed that they had the least idea of the purport of their new labours. They knew, like the public at large, that they were going in the direction of Spain, but the particular object was as much unknown to them as to every body else; for on this occasion, as on that of the war with Russia, Napoleon had spread abroad a number of different reports on the destination of his armaments. People spoke sometimes of an attack on Gibraltar, and at others of an establishment in Africa to secure Ceuta, which commands the passage of the strait. In a word, nothing was omitted to keep up the blindness and security of the court of Madrid; which security was, moreover, fostered by the man whose duty it was to put it on its guard. The Prince of the Peace, directing his views continually towards the new sovereignty erected in his favour by the treaty of Fontainebleau, was entirely subservient to *Bonaparte*, and made no opposition to any measure which might favour the enterprize preparing against his country. Expecting every thing from Napoleon, he in his turn gave every thing up to him. Thus

he sent to the frontiers of Portugal the only body of Spanish troops which was disposable; and by his orders the French detachments experienced no difficulty in penetrating into Spain on all points, but were received with the respect due to the most cordial allies. The gates of Figueras, of Barcelona, of St. Sebastian, and of Pampeluna, were thrown open to them; and the citadel of this last town was surprized by a stratagem nearly similar to that which put the Spaniards in possession of Amiens in the time of Henry IV. The nation now began to be alarmed on finding itself defenceless in the midst of such suspicious allies; perceiving also that the court was making arrangements indicative of an intention to retire, and, as it has since been said, to take refuge in Mexico. It is very probable that *Izquierdo*, who to many vices added great penetration, had discovered Napoleon's real design and explained it to the Prince of the Peace, who would never have guessed it himself.

On the news of the King's removal and his presumed retreat into America, a fermentation was excited in Madrid; riotous assemblies were formed in every quarter; multitudes flocked from all sides to Aranjuez, where the court then was; and the troops, animated with the same spirit as the populace, shewed an aversion to act against them, while the general indignation was directed against the favourite. He fled: but, being discovered in a garret where he had taken refuge, he was abused by the people, and would probably have fallen a victim to their rage, had not the Body-guards rescued him, and had not the Prince of Asturias calmed the public resentment by promising that speedy and strict justice should be executed on him. The King, in a moment of alarm, declared his abdication; and the Prince of Asturias was proclaimed in the midst of the acclamations of the people, who thus expressed their hope that his reign would put an end to the national humiliation, and prove the beginning of their happiness and glory. It is remarkable that, amid all these commotions, not a cry was heard against the King or the Queen, so great and inviolate was the respect entertained for royalty; not a voice broke out in murmurs or reproaches against them; the favourite alone was the object of the popular fury, and the notice of his fall succeeded in appeasing it.

It is important to pay attention to dates, as a clue to the strange and mysterious course of Spanish politics on this occasion. Until the events of Aranjuez (19th March 1808), the Prince of the Peace had been the director of the Spanish councils, and *Bonaparte's* schemes were calculated on his co-operation. The time now drew near for bringing matters to a point, and a journey by the Emperor to the southern departments of France had been announced at Paris for several weeks: but the moment of his departure depended on two circumstances; the assemblage of the French troops in the north of Spain, and the progress of political intrigue at the court of Madrid.

‘ *Napo-*

‘ Napoleon quitted Paris on the 2d of April; it being given out that he was going on a visit to the southern departments. He took me into his suite on passing through Poitiers. I had not seen him for twenty-two months, having quitted him at Paris on the 1st of June 1806: but, on the day before his arrival, I had received an order to keep myself in readiness to attend him in his journey to the south, and to go to Bordeaux. He passed some days in that city, and then proceeded to Bayonne; having met on the road, between Tours and Poitiers, three Spanish grandees, whom the new King had sent to notify his accession to the throne. He excused himself from receiving them on different pretences, appointed Bayonne as the place of meeting, and arrived in that town in the night between the 14th and 15th of April.

‘ It has been seen by the treaty of Fontainebleau that Portugal formed an essential part of the plan which was now beginning to be executed: it was to furnish the indemnities; and it had been occupied for two years by a small number of French troops, under the command of General Junot, afterward Duke of Abrantes. Bonaparte had given orders to send from Lisbon to Bayonne a deputation selected from the persons of the first quality in the kingdom; at the head of which was the Count of Lima, who had been ambassador at Paris, and who had mixed very much in society there. On receiving them, he did not wait till the Count had pronounced his address, which is usual in similar circumstances, but, whether from dilatoriness on the part of the Count or impatience on his own side, opened the conference in a very curious way. After some forms of politeness, he said, addressing himself to the deputies, “ I do not know what I shall do with you; that will depend on what takes place in the south. Besides, are you fit to form a people? have you numbers enough for that? You are abandoned by your prince; he has suffered himself to be taken to Brazil by the English: he has been a great fool in that point, and will repent it.” Then turning to me, he added with a very gay air, “ It is with Kings as with Bishops, they ought to be resident.” Then addressing himself to the Count of Lima, he asked him what was the population of Portugal, and immediately adding the reply to the question, which was habitual with him, and which happens with persons accustomed to answer their own ideas, “ Two millions ? ” — “ More than three,” replied the Count. — “ Ah! I did not know that,” replied Napoleon. “ And Lisbon, a hundred and fifty thousand souls ? ” — “ More than double,” replied the Count of Lima. — “ Ah! I did not know that,” replied Napoleon again. Other questions and answers were exchanged with the same difference of opinions and estimates, and, going from one thing to another, at last he asked the Count, “ What is it that you wish, you Portuguese? Do you wish to be annexed to Spain.” At these words I saw the Count assume an air of consequence, bridle himself up, clap his hand on his sword, and with a voice which shook the roof of the apartment, he replied, “ No.” The antient Portuguese heroes could not have answered better. This heroic monosyllable also struck Napoleon forcibly, and he shewed

shewed the impression which it had made on him, by observing next day to one of his principal officers; "The Count of *Lima* gave me yesterday a stately *Non*." From that moment he altered the tone of the conversation, affecting to season it with good humour, and professing to grant all that was asked for the interests of Portugal; above all, taking care to make no more mention of annexing it to Spain.

These schemes on Portugal formed but an episode in the main drama, and, as things turned out, an episode unconnected with the *denouement*. *Bonaparte's* attention was now wholly fixed on the Spanish cabinet, where the overthrow of the Prince of the Peace had materially deranged his views. Instead of an old and despised sovereign, he had now to treat with a prince who, whatever might be his personal demerits, was well advised, and was possessed of the confidence of his countrymen. He determined, therefore, on no account to acknowledge the legitimacy of the Prince's accession to power, but to entrap him into France, where every effort would be used to obtain his renunciation; and, should that not be effected, to bring over the old King and Queen, on the plan of extorting from the parents that which he could not obtain from the son. The French ambassador at Madrid, and *Murat* who commanded the troops there, accordingly took the royal pair under their protection, and declined to acknowledge the authority of Ferdinand.

'We might be tempted at first to believe that these men (*Murat* and the ambassador) served the projects of Napoleon with a knowledge of their true nature: but no:—they were only the instruments of an action, the definitive result of which was as much a mystery to them as to the rest of the world. They were not in the secret; Napoleon had reserved that for himself. He spares us the trouble of research, and prevents all doubts on this head by observing in his conversation with *Escoiquiz*: "It was not possible for you to guess what I intended to do; not a person in the world was privy to it." In support of this assertion, which is of itself too conformable to *Bonaparte's* character to be questioned by any person who has been much with him, I can add that, having had occasion both at Bayonne and at Paris to converse with General *Savary* on the share that was ascribed to him in the manœuvres which had been used to delude the Prince of Asturias into the snare of Bayonne, he always said to me that "he had in truth been instrumental in determining him to repair to that town, and had pledged himself that the Prince should be acknowledged King immediately on his arrival, but that he had acted according to orders, and that not a syllable had escaped Napoleon which could give him reason to suspect that he wished to deprive Ferdinand of the throne." He has often repeated to me that, after the whole of the scandalous plan was laid open, he had made loud complaints on the subject to *Bonaparte*, who was  
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in fact the sole depositary and director of this unexampled succession of intrigues.'

The next step was to send *Savary* to Ferdinand, that he might persuade him to leave his capital on a visit to *Bonaparte*; and this singular proceeding was urged as the best means of procuring the confidence of him whose support was so necessary to the young prince in maintaining his newly acquired power against the intrigues of the opposite party.

'The Prince of Asturias consequently quitted Madrid on the 10th of April, for Burgos, the place named for an interview with Napoleon: when, the latter not appearing at the rendezvous, the Prince's council became apprehensive, and divided in sentiment as to their farther steps. However, it was agreed to proceed as far as Vittoria, still in the hope of meeting him: but he was not found there any more than at Burgos. This gave rise to new opinions and new distrusts, the most serious and alarming reports arriving in rapid succession. On the other hand; the Spanish grandees, who were sent to compliment Napoleon, (men of very little reputation, as it soon afterward appeared,) wrote from Bayonne that Napoleon was very far from having any unfriendly intentions, and that there was nothing to fear from him. Still, this by no means coincided with the opinion of others; and an old minister of King Charles, a true statesman, had come to Vittoria to lay before the principal advisers of the Prince of Asturias convincing reasons, and irresistible arguments, which ought for ever to have deterred the Prince and his companions from proceeding to Bayonne. They must have been almost infatuated to resist the evidence of those arguments: but unluckily the council of state, like some persons who, in creating heroes of romance, impose imaginary restraints on the passions of men, and make them act more like what they should be than what they are, conceived that the noble and generous qualities which they anticipated in *Bonaparte* would prove a safeguard to them and a barrier to his ambition. The blindness of these men, particularly of *M. Escoiquiz* and the Duke de *l' Infantado*, in allowing themselves to be deceived, is truly deplorable. Their advice was given in the same strain at Vittoria as at Burgos; and General *Savary* having returned to Vittoria after an absence of a few days, his solicitations and promises seconded so opportunely the views of the council that it was determined to proceed to Bayonne immediately.

'At St. Jean de Luz a scene took place of which the public has hitherto been ignorant, but which deserves to be made known. As soon as Napoleon ascertained that the Prince of Asturias had entered the French territory, whether supposing concealment to be no longer necessary, or from the increasing difficulty of keeping a secret after a certain time, he called together the Spanish grandees, whom that Prince had sent to compliment him, and declared to them his whole plan. The Grandees having set out immediately afterward to meet their sovereign, *Bonaparte* repented his indiscretion, and dispatched *Berthier* and another superior

superior officer with orders to stop them: but they had already joined Ferdinand, and told the whole to him and his ministers. The Prince had, however, advanced too far to retreat; and, continuing his journey, he arrived at Bayonne on the morning of the 20th of April. At two o'clock, Napoleon rode to the house which the Prince occupied; and the latter immediately came down to the street-door to meet him. I happened to be in the quarter of the town in which the house stood, and was thus a witness of the interview. I saw Napoleon arrive and the Prince run to meet him; and I saw them embrace one another with every mark of affection and good understanding. Napoleon remained a few moments with the Prince; they embraced again, and separated.

I cannot imagine what *Bonaparte's* meaning was in these external signs of affection and half gratitude, at the very moment when the *denouement* of the plot was about to take place: such pretences could answer no purpose but that of aggravating the injury. Scarcely had the Prince returned home, when General *Savary* came to inform him of Napoleon's intentions with regard to the relinquishment of the Spanish throne. To explain, if possible, what induced him to proceed in this extraordinary way, and to transgress at once every rule of respect due to so illustrious a guest, it must be remembered that *Bonaparte*, habituated to offensive warfare, and to owe his success to bold and rapid strokes, had probably imagined that a sudden and unexpected blow would throw his victim into consternation, and determine him to cast himself at once into the hands of the man who had led him into this labyrinth, and who alone could help him out of it.

The succeeding pages are filled with a long account of the diplomatic contentions between *Bonaparte* and Ferdinand, or rather between the respective ministers of the two. The French negotiators insisted, directly and unequivocally, on a surrender of the crown; while the Spaniards refused to believe them to be serious, and flattered themselves, day after day, that their domineering neighbour aimed at nothing more than the acquisition of the provinces north of the Ebro. All concurred in advising the Prince on no account to make a cession of his hereditary sovereignty: while *Bonaparte*, accustomed to carry every thing before him, became impatient of delay, and set every engine at work to remove the obstacles.

A sharp altercation between *M. de Cevallos* and General *Savary* had caused great discontent on the part of the Spaniards, who shewed great repugnance at continuing to treat with *Savary*. Napoleon, wishing to wipe away the disgust which the rudeness of his representative had created, sent for me, and directed me to confer with *M. Escoiquiz*; this was on the 24th of April. I was absolutely ignorant, like other people, of what was the groundwork of the business in treaty between him and the court of Spain; the outward game was apparent: but the real nature of the negotiation was hidden from every one, except those who were intrusted

intrusted by Napoleon with a share in its prosecution. The mass of mankind imagine that it is sufficient to associate with the great, or even to inhabit the place at which affairs of importance are transacted, in order to acquire a knowledge of the nature of them: but, on the contrary, it is there that we are likely to know the least. We perceive the action of the machinery, and we see no more; besides, whoever has been near Napoleon well knows how little room he allowed for indiscretion or curiosity. I was therefore totally ignorant of what was passing; I did not even collect it from what Napoleon said to me; for on this occasion, as on appointing me to the embassy to Warsaw, he spoke to me so vaguely that, of all that he said, only two things remained impressed on my mind; the first, that I was to see *M. Escoiquiz*; the second, that I was to repair the mischief of any thing which his envoy had let slip, that could in any way have shocked the Spaniards. He concluded his instructions by saying in a laughing tone that, being of the same cloth, the Abbé and I should have the less difficulty in understanding each other. Napoleon usually called *M. Escoiquiz* the little *Ximenes*; and, whenever I returned from my conferences with him, he rarely omitted to ask me: "Well! what says *Ximenes*?" I went, then, to *M. Escoiquiz*, whom I found boiling with anger at the treatment received by his Prince; he recapitulated to me with great heat all that had passed, the treaty of Fontainebleau, the assurances of General *Savary*, the demand of a niece of Napoleon in marriage, the resolution of altering the Spanish dynasty, and the removal to Etruria. All this was a new world to me; I could only join in the sentiments expressed by *M. Escoiquiz*, and those which his vehement complaints could not fail of inspiring. It was indeed a most affecting spectacle to see a young king the victim of a vile favourite, a blind parent, and a powerful neighbour. After having expressed to *M. Escoiquiz* the warm interest which I took in his recital, I could not refrain from asking who had advised the journey to Bayonne, and how he expected to extricate himself from its consequences. In answer to the first question, he frankly acknowledged himself to be the adviser of the journey. If I admired his sincerity, I equally admired his simplicity, and that feeling of attachment which we often have to opinions that have proved most injurious to us, as we feel attached to those places which have been the scenes of our misfortunes. He endeavoured to convince me that, by the rules of prudence, he was justified in recommending the journey to Bayonne; that is to say, that to come and put one's self in prison was the most advisable thing in the world! Often does it happen that men are less fearful of acting wrong than of appearing to do so. How to emancipate himself from this difficulty he knew not, neither did I. Frequently did we consult together on this subject, without being able to form any plan; since, unless with the aid of wings, it was impracticable to quit Bayonne, every possible precaution having been taken to prevent it. *Bonaparte* insisted on my giving an immediate detail of my conferences with *M. Escoiquiz*; his impatience was extreme; he became nearly as unhappy as his victim; and for

this reason — the resistance of the Prince deranged all his plans. He had calculated on the condescension of King Charles, who was betrayed by a base, perfidious wretch. This failing, he had calculated anew on the terrors of the Prince of Asturias, grounded on his inexperience, on his removal from Spain, and on his captivity in a foreign country : every thing failed — Charles was absent, the Prince was deaf to his proposals, and the council was immoveable. He found himself thus committing an unjustifiable action in the face of Europe, without reaping any benefit from it ; and equally at a loss whether to keep the Prince or to release him.'

So early as the day after the arrival of Ferdinand at Bayonne, *M. de Cevallos* and the French minister for foreign affairs had a conference together, on the proposals of Napoleon. The nature of these proposals did not hold out the least hope of a speedy accommodation, and it was with a reference to this discussion that *M. de Cevallos* says in his pamphlet *that he was insulted by Napoleon and called a traitor, because he remained attached to the Prince, after having acted as the minister of his father.* The expression of traitor, violent and unmerited as it was, certainly was used by *Bonaparte* ; who, from the very outset of his accession to power in the office of consul, adopted the practice of bestowing epithets of opprobrium on his ministers and Generals on the occurrence of any slight provocation : — but persons in the habit of approaching him have long been aware that these words were not to be received in a literal sense, and that his behaviour on the following day would indicate a very different state of temper. The Spaniards, however, taking the matter up seriously, replaced *M. de Cevallos* by *M. Labrador*, who continued the negotiation with the French minister : — but, the interests being so opposite, all efforts proved ineffectual, and *Bonaparte* became at last considerably embarrassed. His impatient and overbearing mind, always aiming at accomplishing its object by fraud or compulsion, suggested a number of new projects and exhibited the question in a variety of attitudes.

'Several times in a day, he sent for me to go to *M. Escoiquiz* : but I always returned with the same reply, — viz. complaints and refusals. This opposition doubled his perplexity. With the usual rapidity of his eloquence, and of his imagination, he ran over the question in every point of view in which it was capable of being placed. At one time he said, Spain ought to cost him nothing, she was destitute of the means of defence : at another time, Spain possessed an army of a hundred and forty-five thousand men, besides a numerous militia, which obliged him to keep a force of 80,000 men extended along her frontiers : Spain, under the Bourbons, would never prove a faithful ally to him, a proof of which was

shewn in her conduct at the beginning of the war with Prussia : or the Bourbons would reign peaceably in Etruria, or Lithuania, and would not there be dangerous to him. When I objected to him that he never would be able to induce the Prince of Asturias to exchange the Monarchy of Spain and the Indies for the little kingdom of Etruria ; and that, after having lost one throne, the guarantee of the other must appear to him very precarious ; he exclaimed, " Well ! then, let him declare war against me ;" and a moment afterward : " But how can he do that with 300 guards and 30,000 men at the utmost that he would be able to assemble in Estramadura ? Rely on it, I feel the positive necessity of the enterprise which I have undertaken, for I am in great want of a navy, and this business will occasion me the loss of the six line of Battle-ships which I have at Cadiz." At another time, he said, " If I thought that this matter would cost me 30,000 men, I would give it up : but it will not cost me 12,000 ; it must be mere child's play : these people do not know what it is to contend with French troops ; the Prussians were the same, and we have seen what became of them. Believe me, it will not last long. I do not wish to injure any person : but, when my grand political car is once set in motion, it must move on ; and woe to them who come under its wheels !" This was for several days the ground-work of our conversation. In the meanwhile, the " grand car" stood still, as did also the negotiation. It was necessary that this suspense should have an end ; and it was clear that the embarrassment of his situation would make him take some cruel step.

The question of the independence of the Spanish colonies had often occupied my thoughts ; and I imagined that the time was come at which this project might possibly be realized. Considering the power to which Napoleon had arrived, and accustomed to see all his enterprises crowned with success, — unacquainted with Spain, except from the recitals of travellers or from common report, and in course not able to foresee the national resistance which has since been developed, — disliking also the proffered exchange of Etruria, which presented nothing either equitable or solid, — I judged it right to turn the mind of Napoleon towards another subject. In consequence, I went to him, having sent in a message before-hand that I wished to speak with him. He came towards me with great eagerness, and exclaimed with his usual volubility ; " Well ! what do they say ?" — " That you have juggled them," I replied. He turned aside his head with a burst of laughter. The moment appearing favourable, I told him that I had a proposal to make which he might consider as singular, but it was necessary that he should listen and permit me to explain myself fully. " Well ! speak," said he, " you are here for that purpose !" I then explained to him the impossibility of advancing a single step in the negotiation, the necessity that existed for giving a new turn to the whole business, and the ease with which this might be accomplished by producing the greatest political result that had ever been attempted. Here he stopped

stopped me: "Well! what do you mean by all this preamble," said he: — "I will tell you: you wish to possess Spain. Keep her. Place wide barriers between the present family and yourself; the old world for you, the new one for them; send them off to-morrow with the title of Emperor of America and Peru." — "All that is very well," replied he, walking about with great rapidity; "I have nothing to say against that: it will not injure my views at all." I thought I was now touching the much desired goal, when a moment afterward he walked up to me with great quickness, and seizing me by the arm: "No, no," said he, "don't speak of that yet; I have sent out two frigates to that country, I will have my share of it also."

Finding that he could not carry his point with the ministers of Ferdinand, *Bonaparte* turned his eyes towards the royal pair and their unworthy favourite, who had by this time (1st May) arrived at Bayonne. The Prince of the Peace having been lately endangered by the resentment of the populace, *Bonaparte* poured forth, in his first conversation with him, a violent effusion against the lower classes of the Spaniards, and concluded by saying: "I will give them one who will keep them in better order." On the arrival of the King and Queen, the French at Bayonne crowded around the former, eager to see a prince of the Bourbon race: his stature was tall, his aspect mild, and his manner easy. His Queen, with more indications of capacity, had a less prepossessing look. The political tragi-comedy was now about to be unravelled; and *Bonaparte* made the Prince of the Peace his instrument for inflaming the parents against the son, and for prevailing on them to declare an immediate and absolute cession of the crown of Spain. A notice was now sent to Ferdinand that all farther treaty with him was out of the question: a notice which at last roused his ministers to the alarming reality of *Bonaparte's* projects. They complied with the less disgraceful alternative of relinquishing the crown to the father; and it is a curious fact (pp. 131, 132.) that *Bonaparte*, on returning from the interview in which Charles had insisted on his son's renunciation, called together, in the garden of the house that he occupied near Bayonne, the ministers and others who were within his reach, to whom he drew in strong colouring a picture of the angry scene that had just taken place. "One noble idea and only one," he said, "has occurred to the Spanish court; it was that of going to America." This suggestion led him into a poetic flight on the magnitude of the empire that might thus be formed, and on its beneficial operation for the civilized world. 'I have often,' adds M. DE PRADT, 'been a hearer of *Bonaparte's* effusions, but I never knew him so fluent and even eloquent.'

eloquent. His mind must have been kindled by the grandeur of the subject, or elevated by the prospect of succeeding in his long-coveted seizure of the Spanish crown, for his speech was extremely impressive, and reminded me of an instrument of which every chord is in vibration at once.'

A fresh pretext for *Bonaparte's* interference was soon given by the Madrid-insurrection of the second of May, which arose from the anxiety of the people concerning the royal family, the last members of whom were on that day on the point of setting off for Bayonne. A French officer entering the palace appeared to the people in the light of a messenger sent to accelerate their removal; and from a small beginning the alarm and even the conflict extended, in the course of half an hour, to almost every point of the capital. About two hundred of the inhabitants were killed or wounded: but of the French the loss was considerably greater, and *Bonaparte* affected to be in the utmost rage at those whom he called the murderers of his children. The final cession of the crown took place on the very day (5th May) on which this intelligence reached Bayonne, and the public curiosity became next fixed on the new sovereign, whose name had not yet been mentioned. After a delay of some weeks, *Joseph Bonaparte* was known to be approaching to Bayonne in the beginning of June. He had been apprized some time before of his brother's intentions in his favour: but, being of an unambitious character, and attached to Naples, he had replied that he was disposed to decline the crown, though ready to comply with his brother's wish for his paying a visit to Bayonne. In the journey through Italy, *Joseph* had an interview with *Lucien*, who had formerly been ambassador in Spain, and whose advice completely accorded with his own negative intentions. Letters from him to this effect having reached *Napoleon*, the latter, always faithful to a system of artifice, proclaimed his brother King of Spain before his arrival at Bayonne, set out to compliment him on the road, and, on their meeting, stepped out of his carriage, and paid the new monarch the compliment of saluting him as his equal. This flattering attention, and a plausible representation of the necessity of the measure, overcame the scruples of the wavering *Joseph*, and precipitated him into scenes that proved replete with the utmost distress to a mild and humane heart.

The farther proceedings at Bayonne are sufficiently fresh in the recollection of the public. They took place with the apparent consent of an assemblage of *grandees* and others from Madrid, who met to the number of ninety, and continued sitting from the 15th of June to the 9th of July, the

day on which Joseph and his new counsellors departed for Madrid. Such was at the time the persuasive influence of *Bonaparte*, that nearly all the old ministers and officers of the crown followed their new master.

*Bonaparte*, having remained at Bayonne till the 21st of July, made a circuitous journey along the southern and western departments of France; and the *prefets* and other magistrates found means to call forth demonstrations of popular enthusiasm at every city except Bordeaux, where the mercantile pressure consequent on his anti-commercial edicts was too severely felt to admit of fictitious protestations. It was here that he received the mortifying intelligence of the battle of Baylen and the surrender of *Dupont*.

Other towns, however, gave great evidence of joy, and above all Nantes. During the five days of the court being there, the population of the town had quadrupled; all were in motion and in their gayest dress; and the square in which the palace was situated continued constantly full, both by night and by day. The banks of the Loire, as far as Tours, also presented the most animated scene. I have often endeavoured to discover the cause of these truly extraordinary marks of eagerness and enthusiasm, which in France lend even to indifference the appearance of attachment and approbation. Much has been said of the influence and the excitements of the Prefects: but it would have required many Prefects indeed to produce such an effect. Their power, depend on it, does not go that length. The voice of fame may be considered as a much more potent engine, added to the magic of sovereignty, the magnificence of the equipages, and even the dust which they raise. The populace will always admire beautiful horses, and gather round gilded chariots, as well as round the troops that escort them. Napoleon knew this well; and how-muchsoever he appeared satisfied and pleased in accepting these demonstrations of zeal and attachment, he appreciated them inwardly at their real value. One day, reading the *Moniteur*, at Bayonne, he met with an article from Brunswick, giving a detail of the reception of his brother Jerome, who visited that place for the first time. When he came to these words: "This adored monarch;" "Ah! ah!" said he, with a look that betrayed the secret of his heart; "he has been there only six months and they already adore him!" It is necessary, however, to add in vindication of the people, that at this time the transactions at Bayonne were not yet disclosed to them; the effects were perceptible, but the details were unknown. On returning to Paris on the 14th of August, I found no one who knew much of this subject; and as to the events which had taken place between the French and the Spanish armies, under Generals *Dupont* and *Costano*, they were scarcely whispered. At seven leagues' distance from France, I mean in England, the movements of the political world were published daily;



daily, the balance of Europe being discussed with as little reserve as the anecdotes of private life: but France, on the other hand, was blinded by the romances of the *Moniteur*, and garbled extracts from those news-papers which circulated in their original state through the rest of Europe. Things had arrived at such a pitch, that events of the highest importance, such as the battle of Trafalgar, were never mentioned in the authorized papers of France.'

In this part of the book, M. DE P. makes a pause in his narrative, and enters on a discussion of topics connected with the political situation of Spain: the principal object being to explain the ideas that *Bonaparte* had formed to himself of the state of the country, and of the ease with which he might accomplish the projected change. It appears that he built his hopes on a double basis; the efficacy of the military movements, and the tempting prospect to the people of an amendment in the interior form of government.

' A country with a population of twelve millions of inhabitants, from which the native army had been carefully withdrawn, or banished to the most distant part of the kingdom, — with a ruined treasury, — and a government hated and despised, — was not likely to offer a long resistance to the conqueror of Italy, of Prussia, of Austria, and at that time even of Russia. Certain of the Favourite, and of some others in a less elevated situation, and reckoning on all the enlightened part of the nation, who called for a better order of things, as well as on the hatred still subsisting in some parts against the house of Bourbon, *Bonaparte* thought that he could easily make way for himself amid so many discordant materials. He judged of the nation by the government, and attributed to the people the vices of their rulers; for which reason, he sent only a small number of troops into Spain in the beginning; they amounted at the utmost to 80,000 men, a considerable part of which were conscripts.

' The Spanish government was extremely defective in itself, and the Prince of the Peace had aggravated its mis-management so as to render it intolerable. Napoleon had flattered himself that the destruction of this government, and the hopes of a better, would have possessed great attractions in the eyes of the Spaniards; that he would find allies in Spain, as in other parts of Europe, from the dissemination of French revolutionary principles; that the publication of such liberal ideas as the equality of rank and universal liberty, the levelling of all distinctions, the suppression of places and pensions, — in one word, that the good resulting from the change, — would atone for the mode in which it was effected. The great advantage to be reaped by him, as sovereign of France, was that of freeing him in future from all dread of Spain, and allowing him the disposal of his whole force to act against the northern powers, with whom alone he would have to contend in future.

' But.

‘ But this plan failed in its foundation :— it was erected on hollow ground. Spain, so inferior in her population, her army, and all the other elements of power, to France, might in truth have been easily subdued, if there, as in other places, the government alone had been to be combated : but the spirit of the nation was roused to resistance. Imagine a people ignorant, fanatical, sober in the midst of plenty, as vain of their poverty as others are of their comforts, never quitting their own country, remaining ignorant of the manners of the nations which surround them, brave, but having rather the courage of obstinacy than the obstinacy of courage, and inhabiting a country that for above two thousand years has repelled all invasion, — then judge whether an attempt to conquer such a people by force or by surprise is not to throw yourself amid a swarm of enemies, and in the midst of inextricable difficulties ; such, in fact, is the Spanish nation. Undoubtedly among them were a number of public-spirited and enlightened citizens ; who, like the middle class of the French in 1789, sighed, as they did at that æra in France, for the destruction of abuses, and the establishment of a government agreeable to the true interest of their country : this was principally among the classes employed in the arts, commerce, literature, and the liberal professions ; persons in whom, from the nature of their pursuits, an ardent and enlightened patriotism is generally found. The middle class, placed between the two extremes, neither elevating themselves to the *noblesse* nor descending to the people, but participating in all that is honorable and good in both, is the real pivot of nations ; the whole machine turns on them as on a centre : — but among this class in Spain, as in other countries, the desire of constitutional improvement was not to be gratified by an invasion ; it called for a fair and equitable reform at home. The Spaniards at one time perhaps carried their admiration of *Bonaparte* farther than any people in Europe ; and any person who travelled formerly through Spain will have found abundant proofs of this fact. The public hoped to accomplish two grand points from him ; — a deliverance from the Prince of the Peace, and a radical reform in the government. Had he realized these expectations, it is impossible to describe the transports that would have been felt by a people in whom a vivid imagination is united to serious thought, and whose feelings are so warm and fervid that to call their gratitude enthusiastic would be to express very feebly the sentiments of their hearts. When Spain, on the contrary, found her hopes deceived, she fell into the opposite extreme, and imagined that she had a two-fold injury to revenge.

‘ It is truly astonishing that a mind so penetrating as that of Napoleon should have persisted in his first opinions respecting Spain ; or rather that he should so obstinately have continued in the pursuit of an enterprize, the absurdity of which must have been obvious to him. I know that, during his residence at Madrid, he complained to one of Joseph’s ministers that the information which he had received respecting Spain was false ; and he declared that he found it a country the very reverse of the de-

scriptions which had been given to him. — But, once engaged, whether from shame of giving way or from confidence in his strength, he plunged himself deeper and deeper in this fatal war.

M. DE P. proceeds to mention the different actions that occurred in Spain in the campaign of 1808 : but on these it is needless for us to enlarge ; and we turn by preference to those passages in which his official situation has enabled him to give us observations of a private and interesting nature. When treating of the return of *Bonaparte* from Spain in the end of December 1808, he makes the following remarks :

‘ Napoleon was a second Saturn, devouring his children at the moment of their birth ; of a fickle mind, always ardent and satisfied at the commencement, but constantly changing his views as his projects advanced. In consequence of this continual substitution, the plan of the day was swallowed up, if the figure be allowable, by that of the morrow ; and the operation of his mind was like the appearance of a distant mountain to a wearied traveller, always seeming to recede the farther he advanced.

‘ In returning from Benevento, at the close of 1808, *Bonaparte* stopped at Valladolid, where he waited for the deputation sent to him from the city of Madrid. I travelled with it, and, having reached the town some hours before it, Napoleon sent for me as soon as he heard of my arrival. I found him very impatient to set off for France : but it was night, and the weather very bad : he opened his window frequently to observe the sky, and to ascertain the possibility of beginning his journey. Overpowering me with questions, as he usually did, he asked me rapidly what they were doing at Madrid, and what was the prevalent feeling among the Spaniards ? I did not disguise their discontent ; on which he undertook to prove to me that they were in the wrong ; that permanent discontent was impossible ; that they would obtain the abolition of tithes, equality of rank, and the suppression of feudal rights, and many similar abuses ; advantages which, in his opinion, ought to be decisive in their minds. I was very far from agreeing with him, and replied that all this might be true, but that the Spaniards by no means felt with him on the subject ; that, if they had benefits to receive, and evils to cure, they had determined that the operation should proceed from themselves, not from the intervention of others ; that, in fact, they were like Sganarelle's wife, who “ would at all events have a beating.” He laughed, and continued : “ I did not know Spain : it is a much finer country than I imagined. I have made a very pretty present to my brother : but, you will see, the Spaniards will be doing some foolish thing or another, and I shall have it again ; I will then divide it into five large viceroalties.” He then enlarged on the danger to France in having so powerful a neighbour, and on the plans of independence that her sovereign might form. He was above all struck with the tendency of Spain towards an alliance with England, as the only means of preserving her colonies and enjoying

enjoying the free navigation of the ocean. He relied, he said, no more on a Bonapartean than on a Bourbon-dynasty in Spain: for he was well aware that they would both be equally ready to seize the first opportunity of throwing off the yoke, and rendering themselves independent.

‘He left Valladolid on the day after this conversation, and, mounting his horse, rode all the way to Burgos, a distance of twenty-eight Spanish leagues, equal to the same number of the longest French leagues. Thence he went to Paris, without once stopping on the road. The rapidity of his movements, and his habit of scorning fatigue, added greatly to the magic of his name. Mankind are fond of the marvellous, and those who act in opposition to common rules are sure of being admired.’

Having quitted Spain in the beginning of 1809, M. DE P. had no opportunity of witnessing the eventful struggle that ensued, and in which our countrymen bore so distinguished a part: but he has attempted a calculation of the total loss sustained by France during the six campaigns of that disastrous contest. In lives, the loss is computed by him at not less than 600,000 men: but the specie exported from France he rates (p. 238.) at only ten millions sterling. He takes, however, no account of the value of the clothing, the military stores, and even the provisions, sent successively across the Pyrénées; the amount of which, reduced into an arithmetical estimate, would triple or quadruple his pecuniary calculation\*. On the other hand, we should be disposed to make a considerable deduction (perhaps a third) from his computation of the loss of lives. This loose way of reckoning may give our readers an idea of the inaccuracies into which M. DE P. is apt to fall in other respects; and a curious specimen of them is exhibited in his high-flown effusions on the state of Spain, which in one part (p. 168.) is described as inhabited by a race similar to Asiatics or Africans, while in another (p. 179.) that country is represented as advancing in improvement with all the cool characteristics of European civilization. Another excess, not so easily explained by the prevalence of imagination, is an affected admiration of the Bourbon-government in Spain; a government that was productive, says

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\* The sums of money seized by the French in Spain in the shape of church-plate and otherwise have been much exaggerated. On occupying Madrid in December 1808, they laid hands on the office of the Inquisition, and all that belonged to it:—the result was the acquirement of only 30,000*l.* sterling, which formed the whole exchequer of this far-famed institution; its prisons did not contain a single individual.

M. DE P. (p. 178.) of the most prosperous results to the country. Spain has, in truth, advanced considerably during the century in which she has been ruled by that family: but it has been rather in despite than in consequence of the policy which they have pursued. — These various objections prevent us from bearing a flattering testimony to M. DE P. on the ground either of moral probity or of historical accuracy; and they oblige us to confine our recommendation of his work to the interest which is excited by the portion of official information that he has chosen to give to the world. His motives for this liberal communication of diplomatic secrets we do not profess to know: but those who put faith in the significant hints given by M. Gley (*Voyage en Pologne*) will ascribe it to an appetite for extracting money from the pockets of the public in the capacity of an author, when he can no longer do it in that of an ecclesiastic or a diplomatist.

ART. IV. *Cosmologie, &c.; i. e. Cosmology, or, a General Description of the Earth, considered in its Astronomical, Physical, Historical, Political, and Civil Relations.* By C.-A. WALCKENAER, Member of the Institute of France. 8vo. pp. 750. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

IN this age of world-making, we had instinctively associated the title of *Cosmology*, and the plumpness of the volume to which it is appended, with some elaborate exposition of a new theory of the earth. Lest any of our readers should have been induced to form similar expectations, we hasten to undeceive them, by presenting them with a transcript of the author's preface:

'When we peruse the writings of the philosophers, historians, and geographers of antiquity, we have often cause to regret that, in their endeavours to ascend to general considerations, many whimsical prejudices and absurd systems deaden the spring of their genius, and debase the excellence of their judgment. If we inquire into the cause of this singular combination of great weakness with great vigour, we shall find that it is principally owing to a want of comparative observations, arising from the limited number of countries described and traversed in their time; so that the largest portion of the globe, as well as of its inhabitants, productions, and appearances, was unknown to them; and that, hence, their intellectual labours often betray the very narrow limits of their geographical information.

'This striking example should have a salutary influence on the moderns; and yet we must confess that few studies are so much neglected as that of our globe, considered in its general relations.

In reflecting on the numerous errors to which the defect of information of this kind has given rise among naturalists, men of science, and historians, who in our days have acquired merited reputation, I have often thought that the fault was not wholly attributable to these persons themselves, who in various respects are so highly estimable. When all the sciences have greatly advanced in their progress, each becomes so very extensive that, in order to derive aid from some one of them which we have not particularly cultivated, we are desirous of following the chain of general facts which it presents, without being obliged to examine in detail the numerous links that compose it; and, although excellent treatises on geography have been published in France and in other countries, none of them have appeared to me to answer the end in question. This is the object of my present publication.

‘I purpose to comprize in a single volume, and in a limited number of pages, the more elementary notions and the more important facts relative to Geography; to shew the connection which subsists between this science and the other branches of human knowlege, what it may borrow from each, and what it ought to give back in return. I have uniformly endeavoured to make my definitions the result of my descriptions, and of the exposition of facts; and thus to reduce the various objects, which compose the immense domain of the science, into one compact and consistent whole; so that, by suppressing the titles of the chapters, the reader may consider the work as a single discourse. I have accordingly intitled it *Cosmology*, or, a *Discourse on the Universe*.

‘I begin by describing the movements of the heavenly bodies, which exercise some influence on the terrestrial globe; I then pass to a description of the earth in general, and of its atmosphere; next, to that of oceans and seas, of continents and islands, also considered under their general points of view; I afterward examine what opinions we should entertain of the antient physical revolutions which our earth has undergone: I dwell on the different races of its present inhabitants, and the societies which they have instituted: I mark the progress of civilization and discoveries: I trace the boundaries of geographical knowlege, at different periods of history: I lay down the great divisions of the globe, and describe in detail the *three worlds*, and the *eight parts* or divisions of these three worlds: I present a skeleton of the different countries of the earth, so as to exhibit the physical and moral characters which discriminate them: in concluding the description of each of the eight parts of the globe, I enumerate and arrange the various tribes that inhabit it; and I indicate the relations of form, origin, religion, language, and commerce, which approximate or separate them; thus constraining myself to omit none of the considerations which geography supplies for the illustration of the history of man and of nature.

‘Should this work meet with a favourable reception from the public, it will be followed by a collection of maps, adapted to the descriptions

descriptions which it contains, and to the new divisions and subdivisions which it unfolds; none of the Atlases hitherto published being in any degree commensurate with the present improved state of geography.'

In pursuance of this plan, eleven chapters are allotted to the discussion of as many general topics; namely, the Stars; — Planets, — Earth, Sun, and Moon, — Earth, and its Productions, — Earth, and its Atmosphere, — Ocean and Seas, — Continents and Islands, — Physical Revolutions of the Earth, — Different Races of Mankind, — Human Societies, — Progress of Civilization and Discoveries in the different Parts of the World; — and the remaining four chapters are occupied with statements and explanations of the author's geographical divisions and subdivisions of the known portions of the globe, viz. Grand Divisions, — Antient World, comprizing Europe, Asia, and Africa, — New World, or North and South America, — and the Maritime World, consisting of Notasia, Polynesia, and Australia.

This outline of the design and contents of the present volume will at once plead our apology for declining to exhibit its merits in the form of a methodical and detailed analysis, because it must be obvious to every person of reflection that the materials are already too much condensed to allow of farther abridgement. We may add that, with no very numerous or important exceptions, their amount already exists in various elementary works, either of a scientific or a popular description. M. WALCKENAER, however, evinces a more than ordinary degree of intimacy with the writings of the antient geographers, develops his leading and subordinate divisions with a strict regard to regular catenation, and occasionally relieves his masses of names, descriptions, and bearings, with some ingenious remark or sentimental observation.

Under the category of the *Maritime World*, he comprehends the Islands of the South Seas, New Holland, &c. which he distributes into sections and reduces under new general titles, with an allowable licence of nomenclature and becoming attention to meaning and euphony. With that attachment to truth which, generally speaking, characterizes his pages, he assigns to Abel Tasman the honour of having first explored Carpenter's Bay, and of having discovered the northern coast of New Holland; its reputed discoverer, *Zeehaen*, being *Zeehaan*, the name of Tasman's vessel, but variously disfigured by the ignorance and carelessness of copyists. The author's comparative estimate of the extent and accuracy of antient and modern geography also attests at once

once his sagacity and his candour. Indeed, had he not alluded to the *oppressive domination* of the English, we should have acquitted him of every appearance of nationality: since he fairly appreciates the power and resources of our empire; and, so far from stigmatizing us as a mere nation of *shop-keepers*, dwells with complacency on the names of Newton, Shakspeare, and Milton. In tracing the origin and progress of civil and political institutions, he is disposed to lay much stress on the circumstances in which a people may happen to be placed at the period of their emerging from barbarity. — With great *velocity*, but also with great *coolness*, he surveys the different kinds of government and religion, and the diversities of language. In his chapter on the Physical Revolutions of the Globe, he briefly adverts to those vegetable and animal relics which attest a very different state of things from that with which we are at present familiar. He moreover admits the striking fact that, in the bosom of the earth, no fossil remains of any human being have been hitherto detected\*; but he conjectures that some peculiar race, endowed with intelligence, and capable of exercising dominion over the lower departments of animated nature, though differing in organic structure from the conformation of the human body of modern times, may have existed. Such a supposition may be very safely hazarded; for who can resort to the record, in order to confirm or to confute it? but our present state of geological knowledge certainly affords us no proof of its being founded in fact. With regard to the diversities of mankind, M. WALCKENAER contends that there are varieties, not of colour only, but of some points of anatomical structure, which are perpetuated in the respective races, when kept pure and distinct, but yet are not sufficiently prominent to constitute specific differences. All the modifications which he particularizes may, he alleges, be referred to three principal classes, which he denominates the *white*, or *Scythian*, the *yellowish*, or *Mongolian*, and the *black*, or *Ethiopian*. He is aware at the same time of the imperfect data from which have been deduced the real or supposed varieties, and the physical and moral qualities which have been attributed to them; and we ought not, he thinks, to be surprized at the small advances which have been made in the *science of anthropology*, when we reflect that *Linneé* and *Buffon* believed in the existence of men with tails, and described them in their works.

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\* The mutilated skeleton lately discovered in Guadaloupe is a solitary exception to this position; and, if we are correctly informed, it was found in a calcareous alluvial soil, of recent formation. — *Rev.*



The writer's remarks on the arrangement and direction of mountain-chains are well deserving of attention, especially as they militate against some of the more commonly received notions on the subject :

' Buffon erroneously believed that the most elevated chains of mountains are the most approximated to the equator. Mount Elias, which, under sixty degrees and twenty-one minutes of north latitude, rises to two thousand eight hundred and twenty-nine toises, — Fair-weather Peak, situated on the same coast, at fifty-nine degrees of latitude, which reaches to an elevation of two thousand three hundred toises, — and, in short, our European Alps, — contradict this assertion. If, as we have already remarked, the loftiest summits of the Old World are in the mountains of Thibet, and those of the New World in the centre of the Andes, near *la Paz*, we should, on the contrary, infer that the highest mountains are in the neighbourhood of the two tropics, and not of the equator ; and that a chain of very high mountains may exist in the interior of Notasia, or New Holland, and in the south of Africa, since the southern tropic traverses these two continents. But we are not in possession of a sufficient number of accurate observations to ascertain whether nature, in this respect, has observed general and fixed rules ; we only know that the mountain-chains which are situated beyond the 55th degree of latitude, in each hemisphere, diminish in height in proportion as we approach the poles ; yet Mount Parnassus, in Spitzbergen, rises to the height of six hundred toises, and Snæfjals Sokull [*Jokull*], in Iceland, to eight hundred toises.

' Nature, however, in the direction of the principal mountain-ranges, strictly adheres to a law which seems not to us to have been sufficiently noticed, and which it is necessary to explain. The most continuous, the most extensive, and the most elevated chains of mountains, always coincide in direction with that of the largest dimensions of the continents or islands ; those next in respect of height, with that of the open or closed peninsulæ which form their terminations ; and the minor chains are subordinate in their direction to that of the broadest expansion of the lands which they traverse. Thus, the two Americas, which extend much more in the direction of south and north than in that of east and west, are pervaded by the immense chain of the Rocky or Columbian mountains, and by the Andes. This chain, at once the longest and most elevated on the globe, is prolonged without interruption from south to north, and approaches almost equally near to either pole, from which its two extremities are removed only between thirty and forty degrees. The greatest dimension of Asia is measured by a curve, extending from the Dardanelles westward to Behring's Straits, and eastward inclining to the north ; and Mount Taurus in Asia Minor, Caucasus, the mountains of the two Bucharas, the Himmalaya, or Thibetian Alps, and the Altaic and Jablonnoic mountains, which form the principal and the most elevated chains of this continent, are also directed from west to north-east,

east, and in the line of that largest dimension. Europe, which, considered physically, is only a prolongation of Asia, is in like manner traversed from east to west by the same principal chains; which are in some measure continued by the Balkan and Carpathian mountains, and by the Alps, Cevennes, and Pyrénées.

The dilatation of the two continents of the New World, towards the east, is accompanied by the chain of the Alleghany or Blue Mountains, which stretch out in a direction parallel with the coast from south-west to north-east; and by the mountains of Brazil, which follow the line of the coast. The peninsulæ of California and Florida are divided in their middle by mountains which, like themselves, stretch from north to south; while the mountains of the peninsula of Alatska, those of the islands of Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, extend, on the contrary, from west to east, in the direction of the largest expansion of the peninsula, and of the islands which they traverse; and consequently in a direction contrary to that of the two continents of the New World. The same appearances prevail in Asia:—Arabia, India, the peninsula of Malacca, and those of Korea and Kamtschatka, are traversed by chains of mountains which extend from north to south, and in the opposite direction to that of the continent. The Iberian chain, which in Spain makes a right angle with the Pyrénées; the Appennines, which divide Italy, throughout its length; the Dofrefels, or Scandinavian Alps, and the Uralian mountains, which follow the dilatation of the European continent towards the east;—all these chains, which stretch from south to north, are inferior in height to the Carpathian mountains, the Alps, and the Pyrénées, or to the principal chains which traverse Europe in the contrary direction, namely, from east to west; and they furnish so many evident proofs of the law which we have propounded.'

The ensuing extracts may suffice as specimens of the author's powers of animated and sublime painting:

'It is in the regions of mountains that nature displays her most astonishing aspects, and all the charms of her picturesque beauty. Smiling and fruitful valleys, the refuge of industry and happiness, are contrasted with the naked and barren summits which encompass them,—with those huge ridges, invested in eternal snow,—with those resplendent glaciers, the abode of silence and of death. It is on the sublime heights of mountains that we breathe a purer air, that we are conscious of a more lively and delightful sensation of existence, that we contemplate the clouds and the thunder rolling far beneath our feet, and that we embrace in vision that immense horizon on which whole kingdoms appear like patchwork, and flattened, as on our maps. But it is also in mountains that the powers of nature seem to maintain a perpetual struggle, and that they threaten, in the most alarming manner, the existence of men and of all animals. Snow and stones agglomerate in their fall, accumulate as they roll, and form those dreadful *avalanches* which bury entire villages: rocks break asunder, or tumble down, crushing the habitations, filling up lakes, or obstructing

structing rivers, and causing them to overflow: the storms murmur and explode with hideous din, and let loose winds which overturn every thing in their course: the rains, in an instant, produce devastating torrents, and change into a rapid and menacing river the limpid stream, on whose margin, a few moments before, the feeble child fearlessly sported. It is in the mountains, or near the chains which they form, that we contemplate, with the deepest feelings of apprehension, the most majestic and the most formidable of all natural phænomena, that of volcanos, &c.

The real or fancied horrors of the north pole are thus forcibly pourtrayed:

'Who are those that, in the prosecution of this daring enterprise, will venture to brave the rigours of such climates, to arrive at that spot on the globe which knows but one day and one night in the year, and where the guiding needle can no longer point either to the north or the south? Who would be sufficiently intrepid to advance into the midst of those mountains and pyramids of crystal, or to set foot on those lands which the accumulated congelations of winters have rendered undistinguishable from waves consolidated by the cold; where rocks split and displode with a noise like thunder, by the mere force of ice interposed in their crevices? Who would not dread to be exposed to the obscurity of that zone, where the enduring nights and the dense and gloomy fogs seem to give eternity to darkness? The sombre horrors of the scene are, however, at intervals, enlightened by the moon's silver disk; and the *aurora borealis* is suddenly spread abroad, like the radiance of a vast conflagration, darting forth in streams, rolling in fiery waves, or whirling in rapid volumes: in the atmosphere all is commotion, and on the ground all is stillness. This meteor sometimes sheds over these frozen solitudes and distant snows a dingy glare, a pale light, a mysterious tint, a magical ambiguity of day; the most absolute silence reigns in space: except that, from some remote recess, mournful and hollow echoes repeat the hoarse and savage descant of aquatic birds, enfeebled by the cold, tormented with hunger, and roaming forlorn in these horrible deserts. But soon a panic-terror seizes on the adventurous traveller; a tremendous crash is heard; mountains of ice break asunder, totter, impinge on one another, present a partial opening, float, and disperse in threatening fragments; a shocking and inevitable death now stares him in the face, as the last term of the perils which he has encountered and of the sufferings which he has endured.'

It is not often, however, that our learned cosmologist has recourse to rhetorical embellishment; which, it must be confessed, is little suited to the compendious and elementary nature of his plan. A plain-dealing critic might, indeed, readily dispense with a few scattered morsels of high-toned eloquence, in exchange for the fulfilment of the fair and ample promises held forth in the preface, but which occasionally  
vanish

vanish in the fogs of the north or in the smoke of a volcano. Important defects and omissions sometimes occur; and we are seldom distinctly apprized of the characteristic mineral, vegetable, and animal products of the respective portions of territory which pass in review. The writer's accuracy, too, is in a few instances more than questionable. He talks, for example, of the estuaries of the *Linne*\* and *Tyne*, on the west coast of Scotland; and he would lead us to believe that the *Norse* is still the prevailing language in Orkney, when in Norway itself its use is limited to the interior districts. Christians who acknowledge no other authority in matters of faith than the Bible, he classes under the three denominations of *Trinitarians*, *Unitarians*, and *Protestants*:—an offence against good order which is scarcely, we fear, intitled to benefit of clergy. — When he represents *Puy* as synonymous with *Pic*, we suspect that he labours under a mistake; at least we have been assured, by a very intelligent and well-informed native of Auvergne, that it is an ascertained corruption of the Italian *Poggio*. — In our utmost latitude of charity, we cannot concede to him the position that *Geography* is the *only* department of knowledge of which the language has not been rendered sufficiently precise. The moon, he alleges, produces on our atmosphere very marked modifications, though apparently irregular, because we have not yet been able to reduce them to calculation: but, if they be really so irregular as to defy calculation, we should not hastily ascribe them to a cause of which the known agency is so steady and uniform: — neither can we divine how the sun's rays, in traversing the strata of the atmosphere, can give rise to the aurora borealis.

While we thus candidly point to some of the exceptionable passages in this book; we cannot withhold from the author the praise of worthy intention and of much able execution. To those persons, particularly, who are just entering on a course of geographical study, and who are furnished with the best maps of the different quarters of the globe, the work, if deliberately perused, may serve as an useful introduction, or text-book, by exhibiting in a consecutive series the multiplied topics of future investigation. To those, again, who have long since completed such a course, it may prove no unpleasant remembrance, by renewing faded impressions, and enabling memory to re-trace many links in the chain of associations and dependencies.

“ *Indocti discant, et ament meminisse periti.*”

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\* Can he mean the conflux of the *Leven* with the *Clyde*? *Rev.*

We can scarcely venture, however, to flatter M. WALCKENAER with any thing like an assurance that his *Cosmology* will be highly prized by the general reader, or that it will even live its day without incurring the imputation of irksome formality.

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ART. V. *Les Martinales, &c.; i. e. Martinmas Medals; or a Description of a Medal of which the Device is the Goose of St. Martin.* By A. L. MILLIN, Member of the Institute, and Knight of the Legion of Honour. 8vo. pp. 36. Paris. 1815. London, De Boffe. Price 3s.

IN the Catholic calendars, the festival of St. Martin of Tours is appointed to be held on the 11th of November. This Bishop was once so popular in France, that his feast had an *octave*, that is, was celebrated a second time in the week following; and it was a rule among his devotees to roast a goose for the family-dinner on the day of his anniversary. According to M. MILLIN, the medal here described and engraved was struck in commemoration of this custom. On one side is embossed a goose, and on the reverse occurs the word *Martinalia*.

Many particulars of *goose-eating* are here compiled. Petronius praises this fowl in the following passage, as a popular dish:

“ *Ales Phasiacis petita Colchis*  
*Atque Afræ volucres placent palato,*  
*Quod non sunt faciles : at albus anser*  
*Et pictis anas enotata pennis*  
*Plebeium sapit.”*

Diodorus Siculus (ii. 3.) speaks of the goose as a regular and favourite diet of Ægyptian kings; and, on several of the monuments constructed by them, priests are represented offering a goose in sacrifice. — Athenæus mentions (xiv. 74.) the fondness of Lacedæmonians for the goose; and the Romans not only valued it as a delicacy, but kept holy geese at the public expense, in honour of those which saved the Capitol. — According to Lampridius, Geta gave orders to his cook to serve his dinners in alphabetic order. To-day every dish was to begin with an *a*, and to-morrow with a *b*; and thus the *anser* under him had the honour of ushering in every *cyclus* of repasts.

Alexander Severus commonly dined on chickens: but he added a goose on solemn occasions, such as the birth-day of those worthies whom he honoured with a select veneration. — Horace praises the liver of a goose that has fed on figs; and Pliny describes a method of swelling it, which he hesitates whether

whether to attribute to Scipio Metellus or to Marcus Seius: but he awards to Messalinus Cotta the indisputable honour of inventing a dish consisting of goose's feet grilled. The words of Pliny (*Hist. Nat.* x. 22.) are remarkable. "*Nec sine causâ in quæstione est, quis primus tantum bonum invenerit, Scipio ne Metellus, vir consularis, an Marcus Seius, eâdem ætate eques Romanus. Sed quod constat, Messalinus Cotta, Messalæ oratoris filius, palmas pedum ex his torrere, atque patinis cum gallinacearum cristis condire reperit.*"

Now let us ask, how came the goose in modern times to be consecrated to Saint Martin? His festival occurs when geese are in season; and it was always celebrated with a voracity the more eager, as it happens on the eve of the *petit carême*, when fowls could no longer be presented on the tables of a religious age. A German monk, Martin Schoock, has made it a case of conscience whether, even on the eve of the little Lent, it be allowable to eat goose: "*An liceat Martinilibus anserem comedere?*" Exerc. xvii, p. 205. After having dived into the weedy pool of the casuist's arguments, the delighted devotee emerges with the permission to roast his goose; and thus the goose came to be a standing dish on the Continent at Martinmas, as in England at Michaelmas.

Charlemagne was fond of geese, and contributed to give them a vogue; and they formed at one time so important an object of rural economy, that the first poulterers were called *oyers*. Geese are rarely boiled, but usually roasted; and they were stuffed by the Romans with white meats, as by the Germans with chesnuts. The legs are sometimes separated, and salted apart for hams. In England, according to the Laureat's sonnet, which has escaped the notice of M. MILLIN, a goose is reckoned

————— "very fine,  
Seasoned with sage and onions and port-wine."

ART. VI. *Epoques et Faits Mémorables, &c.*; i. e. Epochs and Memorable Events in the History of England, from Alfred the Great to the present Time. Composed for the Purpose of affording Young People an Idea of the most interesting Parts of the Annals of that Country. With Eight Engravings. By R. J. DURDENT. 12mo. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s. sewed.

THE compiler of this work has already appeared, not very advantageously, as a labourer in this department of literature, having published a similar abridgement of the history

of France for the use of schools, intitled *Epoques et Faits Mémorables de l'Histoire de France*. That production, however, is worthier of being translated into our language than this; because, in the annals of a foreign state, those things which the natives take most pains to impress require to be vigilantly regarded by the stranger, in order to understand, and sometimes to counteract, the bearing and amount of alien prejudices: but this volume contains a view of British rulers and affairs that is too limited for our use and too unfavourable for our welcome.

Chapter i. treats of Alfred the Great: the second, of William the Conqueror: but none of the intervening history is given. Then comes the murder of Becket; the reigns of William Rufus, of Henry I., and of Stephen, being wholly passed over. The crusade of Richard Cœur de Lion is narrated; and the port in Cyprus called by our historians (Rapin and Hume, for instance,) *Limisso* is here called *Limerol*. Under the reign of John, no mention is made of *Magna Charta*: but the crown of England is represented as having been voluntarily conferred by the British peers and parliament on Louis VIII. of France. The murder of Edward II. is related with all its horrors. Under Edward III. the battle of Crecy is described, but that of Poitiers is wholly omitted. More entire reigns are then skipped, as unworthy of notice; and, in short, the work is rather a selection of libellous anecdotes than a series of historic incidents.

The reign of Henry VIII. relates the successive executions of half-a-dozen wives, which gave rise to the story of Bluebeard, but makes no mention whatever of the Protestant Reformation. The execution of Lady Jane Grey and of Mary Stuart, and all anecdotes of English regicide, are brought out with complacency. The chapter which relates the catastrophe of Charles I. is intitled *Assassinat juridique de Charles premier*; and the restoration of the Stuarts, effected by the perfidy of General Monk, is narrated with loyal satisfaction, and illustrated by an engraving:—it is every way adapted to be read with interest by subjects of the Bourbons!

Of the Revolution, nothing is told but its military or naval catastrophes. An entire chapter is allotted to Marlborough, on whose peculations the writer dwells with emphasis. The execution of Admiral Byng and the invasion of the Pretender in 1745 are the only incidents selected for notice during a period of great literary eminence. It appears that Admirals Vernon and Anson, and the battle of Dettingen, are known to the author: but between 1745 and 1790 nothing else has attracted the record of his pen. A single concluding chapter

dispatches

dispatches the period intervening between 1790 and 1814; and this is chiefly ornamented with a biography of Tippeo Saib, and an engraving of his death.

An appendix concerning British literature, in which Boyle is put at the head of our philosophers, terminates the volume; which may be almost considered as a counterpart to General *Pillet's* calumnious and ridiculous satire of the British nation. To propagate an Anglo-phobia in France seems now to be the object of the adherents of the Bourbons. Such are our rewards for the battle of Waterloo!

ART. VII. *Histoire des Républiques Italiennes, &c.; i. e.* The History of the Italian Republics of the Middle Age. By M. SIMONDE DE SISMONDI.

[Article concluded from the last Appendix.]

WE are again and again compelled to express our wishes that M. DE SISMONDI had confined himself to the delineation of one or two principal states, rather than extended his plan to the general history of the Italian republics. His detail now crosses itself in so many directions, that it resembles the stories of Ariosto, which are never fairly brought to a close before they are interrupted by new romances; and which, in their turn, are stopped in their career by new adventures, in endless succession of intricacy. We proceed in our abstract; translating much of it so closely from the author, as to afford a full view of his sentiments and manner of writing.

The close of the fourteenth century witnessed the extinction of liberty in almost the whole of Italy. The subjugation of the Italian states, and perpetual conspiracies which broke out at Florence,—and which, by their horrors, made liberty itself revolting,—are the signs and wonders with which the fifteenth century is ushered in. Genoa, Perugia, and Sienna, had voluntarily submitted themselves to masters; Pisa had been sold; Lucca and Bologna, yet affecting to be free, were a prey to agitations which presaged their future ruin; Venice, shutting herself up within her lakes, appeared to abandon Italy to its unhappy fortune; Rome was sunken in the vices of slavery; the kingdom of Naples and Lombardy had forgotten even the name of liberty; and the land once so fertile in citizens and heroes appeared deserted by all the virtues and every elevated sentiment. The plague at length burst out at the same time in different parts of Italy; and the people, alarmed by so many disasters, recognized the chastisements which they had deserved, and had recourse, not to religion, but to superstition, its mockery, to implore the Divine mercy.



M. DE S. observes that, in the political history of Italy during the fifteenth century, we have a striking contrast to its literary history; every day, the ruin of liberty was seen to approach nearer, and with it the ruin of morals, of energy, of all public and private virtue: while on the other hand a passion for poetry, and an admiration of eloquence and of erudition in particular, should seem to have indicated something more noble and elevated in the character of the age. If, however, we suffer our minds to rest on the characters of the learned who lived at that epoch, much as we may admire their laborious researches, and feel grateful for many master-pieces of antiquity which they preserved for us, as well as for the various excellencies in modern writers which emanate to a great degree from the partial imitation of these admirable remains, yet we cannot fail to discover, in the works of those who have made this noble bequest to posterity, the impression of servility, or of the disorder of evil times. In fact, the progress of intellect in the fifteenth century was not the effect of a national development of faculties long concealed; it arose not from the meditation, reflection, or imagination of the Italians of the day; these were not the elements which formed *Guarino, Valla, Filelfo, Poggio, and Picino*. Their existence sprang from the resolute study of an antiquity which bore no relationship to the times in which they wrote; they were the offspring of adopted thoughts, of forms of reasoning, of images, of laws and restrictions in poetry made for other nations, other languages, and other manners: they were the offspring of memory, which was honoured beyond all other faculties,—of a degrading submission to individual taste, and to literary models and authorities. A servile character was impressed by erudition on the thought, and hence transmitted to the politics of this unoriginal race of beings. History invites us to look for the public virtues of the literati in the 15th century; and we are compelled to confess that we trace in them no elevation, no love of their country, nor any knowledge of politics.

The republics produced philologists as well as the little principalities; and Florence alone, by her *Leonardo Bruno, Poggio, Ambrosio Camaldula, and Marzupini*, was able to lord it over all other states: but, although it should appear that three of the above learned men were in turn chancellors of the republic, they did not acquire an influence proportioned to their vast erudition; they did not make their superiority redound to the credit of the state, nor introduce into the public deliberations, or at the bar, that persuasive eloquence which owes its birth to feeling; nor did they recall, by displaying a single  
virtue

virtue or talent of the ancients, that antiquity which they incessantly imitated.

On the arrival of the Emperor Frederic the Third at Florence, the talents of these pretended orators and statesmen were put to the test; and *Charles Marzuppin*i, who had succeeded to *Leonardo Bruno* in the office of secretary to the Republic, was commissioned to compliment the Emperor. He addressed to that monarch an harangue in the Latin language, which composition had occupied him two days; and the fine display of his erudition, sacred and profane, aided by the elegance of his language, excited the admiration of his auditory: but neither did his hearers nor did he contemplate any political aim in this prepared discourse. The Emperor having directed his secretary *Aeneas Silvius Piccolomini* (known afterward as Pius II.) to reply, this orator, who was a far greater statesman than philologist, and who had been accustomed in the council of Basle to speak to the point, introduced in his answer some demands on the republic, and some observations which required a rejoinder. *Marzuppin*i, unprepared for such an accident, was unable to speak, and the republic was compelled to engage *Giannozzo Manetti* to extricate the pedant from his embarrassment.

These men, who had only learned to think in imitation of others, and who, while they fatigued the public with eloquence, have left their own age so sterile in the art, — so ignorant of that empire of language which we should expect to see exercised in republics, — possessed much more vanity than love of glory, and more avarice than ambition; they sought in preference the courts of princes, in which theoretical erudition was held in higher estimation than science applied to useful purposes. In republics, they felt themselves humiliated whenever they entered the lists with magistrates of a firm character, and of a precise and just turn of thinking, like the *Neri Capponi*, *Maso dei Albizzi*, or *Cosmo de' Medici*; who, although strangers to what were then styled the elegances of the Latin tongue, and to the art of borrowing false ornaments, governed states by the power of thought. They found themselves more in their element at the court of an *Alfonzo*, of a *Sforza*, of a *Gonzaga*, of a *Marquis d'Este*, or of a *Montefeltro*. Their life was consecrated to a species of erudition which could not excite any disquiet in the mind of the most suspicious prince, and could not trouble the state. When called to some public function, they were not required to speak from conviction, nor to enforce it; hence they were known to justify, without scruple, the most tyrannical actions in which they had borne no part. Their function did not

make it necessary to analyze or judge those actions, but to disguise them under fine Ciceronian phrases; they were not employed as statesmen but as rhetoricians; they felt no responsibility, even before the eyes of the world, for their thoughts or decisions, but only for their style; and, when an opportunity presented itself of supporting two sides of the question, and of speaking successively in opposition to themselves, they hailed it as an increase of glory, because their talents of orator and sophist shone forth on the happy occasion with its brightest lustré. — In a word, these literati studied the liberal arts with illiberal opinions. — The court of Rome, however, had been re-established, and *Thomas de Sarzana* has the merit of patronizing the renascent Greek, and extending, under the name of *Nicholas V.*, his protection and encouragement to architecture. To the magnificence of his short reign we are indebted for the foundation of the Vatican library. He collected five thousand volumes in that pontifical palace; and no person in those days believed that, since the time of *Ptolemy*, any library had contained one half of that number. The learned men to whose use he had destined it, and with whom he lived on terms of familiarity, were attached to him by admiration and esteem.

Nothing in history is more ridiculous than the attempts of isolated individuals at different periods to revive the Roman republic. *Colas Rienzo* in the fourteenth and *Porcari* in the fifteenth century were lamentable examples of the madness of attempting to recall the severity, simplicity, and courage which had retired with the liberties of antient Rome, which had partially returned, and which had at length been buried by the successes of tyrants over subjects too enervated to have retained a relish for the blessing that had left them. The more free a nation may be, the more every citizen is interested in the grand actions performed for the good of his country, and the hereditary glory attached to public virtues and exploits is the more firmly assured. The subject of a despot sees in the victorious General only an actor in a brilliant pageant; the free citizen regards him as a saviour, a defender, an author of his own glory: his name, illustrated by a noble action, becomes national property; and in a free country every individual appears a sharer in his triumphs. No people ever shewed more enthusiasm for their noble families than the Genoese; and every inheritor of the names of *Doria*, *Spinola*, *Fieschi*, or *Grimaldi*, or of the plebeian but illustrious names of the *Adorni* and *Fregosi*, commanded a weight of opinion and credit which the noblesse have never exercised in any monarchy. That aristocracy had excited the

the jealousy of the magistracy; and the laws, which should have rested on it as on an anchor, were tending on the contrary to its destruction. The jealousy for liberty, carried too far, frequently excluded from the Genoese government the descendants of those great men, whose names would have inspired the soldier and the sailor with remembrances of past and the earnest of future victories; if the laws, instead of punishing them for their celebrity, had recognized it, and contented themselves with putting limits to their power. The imprudence of the legislature, however, had not deigned to behold the illustrious merit of the descendants of *Paganino Doria* but for the purpose of excluding them, and all their brother nobles, from the first dignity of the state.

We have more than once noticed the difficulties with which M. DE SISMONDI has been obliged to contend, in uniting into one web so many and such distant and independent events; deprived as he is of a metropolis from which and to which every action should emanate and refer. On a farther consideration of this great work, we cannot help thinking that the title belies the subject of it; as we advance from the fifth volume, this impression becomes stronger; and, compelled as we are to take part in the wars of the succession between the houses of Anjou and Aragon, and to fix our attention as much and even more on princes, on tyrants, and on monsters, we venture to suggest that the book is rather a history of the states than of the republics of the middle age. Towards the close, indeed, liberty has breathed her last sigh, and, we much fear, has taken leave of her once beloved soil for ever. The republics become merely auxiliaries, and are quite thrown into the shade by the wretched splendour of daring tyranny and usurpation.

The revolutions which, after having ruined the republic of Genoa, ended in bringing her to the feet of a despot, had taken their origin in the war of the kingdom of Naples. To expel the house of Aragon, the republic had exhausted its treasures and shed her best blood, until she fell a victim herself to the troubles which she attempted to excite in distant provinces. She had abandoned a cause which she embraced at first with zeal; she had experienced all the violence which is usually inflicted on a state by the heads of factions; and, in search of internal peace, she had been compelled to renounce her own liberty. During the same epoch, the republic of Florence escaped those violent convulsions by endeavouring to isolate herself from the important quarrel which in those days divided Italy. She had at first taken almost as warm an interest as Genoa in the greatness of the house of Anjou, and had

had been on the point of embroiling herself in the same war: but the prudence of a single citizen had retained her in her neutrality, and she had at one and the same time avoided the great exterior dangers and interior convulsions. Yet Florence had not been exempt from the misfortunes attached to the empire of factions; and, if she had not absolutely lost her liberty, she saw it at least cruelly compromised by those very persons who had elevated themselves within her bosom to be the defenders and protectors of the people.

The legal form of the Florentine government bore a close resemblance to democracy; no body in the state possessed a firm power, or named its own members, or preserved a spirit and interest independent of the people. The councils, the magistracy, and the chief of the state himself, changed rapidly; and before the profession, if we may so say, of government was learned, every one was succeeded by a new nomination. Thus, to prevent the ascendancy of any one body or family, and to avoid the ills of bribery, chance was put in the place of choice, and the republic obeyed a government whose members were the result of a lottery. This exaggerated anxiety for liberty was the germ of its destruction; and the first great man who succeeded in fixing the eyes of his country on himself became either the destroyer or the victim of its liberties. *Cosmo de' Medici*, without any pretensions to military science, was the promoter of the arts, and possessed in an eminent degree the talents of a great statesman: but, besides these advantages, his immense riches enabled him to diffuse his name, connected with acts of liberality that threw into the shade the magnificence of all his fellow-citizens. This conduct and these endowments gained him adherents. — His rival was *Neri Capponi*, who like *Cosmo* had also numerous partisans and admirers. These two great men, although engaged in habitual opposition, remained united either by their zeal for the republic or by their mutual apprehension of the *Albizzi*, a family yet powerful, though in adversity. Hence, for one-and-twenty years, during which time they were conjointly at the head of the state, until the death of *Capponi* in 1455, they found the people disposed to continue them in the office; and their nomination was renewed six times during that period, and always in a legitimate manner, by the parliament assembled at the demand of the councils. When, at the death of *Capponi*, *Cosmo* remained without a rival, he procured the election of *Lucas Pitti* to the office of Gonfalonier; and, though not openly seconding this rich, powerful, and intriguing citizen, he resolved to avail himself of his successes over the liberties of Florence. From being, however, a tool in  
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the hand of *Cosmo*, *Pitti* became an independent tyrant. He filled his palace with armed men; he compelled the prior and his colleagues to demand a new parliament; in every avenue to the palace he posted soldiers and peasants, to whom he had distributed arms; and, on the 11th of August 1458, he ordered the great cathedral bell to be tolled, held an assembly of the people, and received from the trembling multitude his nomination to the office of high bailiff, a post of dictatorial authority, and unknown to any but the most calamitous times of the republic. *Lucas Pitti* was then knighted, in return for the melancholy merit of having thus gone beyond the utmost stretch of power hitherto exerted by *Cosmo*: he received presents from every quarter; and the party of *Cosmo* itself deemed it prudent to court his favour. The chief of this party was now old, infirm, and tormented with the gout; and, apparently disgusted with public affairs, he passed the greater part of his time at his country-house. Meanwhile, *Pitti*, aspiring and proud, availed himself of the retreat of his friend to carry into effect the suggestions of his ambition: he appeared in fact the chief of the republic; and the ruling faction was no longer known by the name of *Cosmo* but by that of *Pitti*. To signalize his triumph, he undertook to build two palaces; the one at the distance of a mile from the city-walls, the other in the city; and he laid their foundations on a scale so vast, and with a pomp so unprecedented, that Florence, accustomed as she was to the wonders of architecture, and which had not censured *Cosmo* for exceeding the bounds of republican modesty by the structure of the *Medici* palace, (now the *Palace Riccardi* in the *Via Larga*,) considered the erection of these edifices of *Pitti* as a royal enterprize. Not only individuals, but communities, who had any demand to make on the councils of the republic, addressed themselves to *Pitti*; and all men knew that the only way to obtain the object of their wishes was by contributing materials for these palaces. All exiles, or malefactors over whom the sword of the law was suspended, fled for refuge to the vast asylum contained within those walls; and, as long as they were engaged in the labour of building, they were protected against the officers of justice, who dared not pursue them to this retreat.

*Cosmo de' Medici* had ever avoided giving offence to his fellow-citizens by the exterior of pomp, and, if considered abroad as a prince, had preserved at home the simple appearance of a citizen. He therefore saw with regret that the party formed and supported by himself had tended to impose a tyrant on the state. Remaining at a distance from public affairs,

affairs, he built temples at Florence and in its vicinity, lived surrounded by men of letters, and was engaged with *Marsilio Ficino* in the renovation of the Platonic philosophy, when, at the beginning of November 1463, he had the misfortune to lose his second son *Giovanni de' Medici*, who had attained the age of forty-two years; and on whom he had rested his hopes for the future grandeur of his family. The character of *Giovanni* had appeared to him to be of that firm masculine description, which offered fair to govern the republic after his own death, to gain the affections and confidence of the citizens, to maintain abroad the reputation of the *Medici*, and at home to give encouragement to letters and the arts. *Piero*, his eldest son, then forty-seven years of age, was so infirm in health that much could not reasonably be expected from him for the support of public affairs; the son of *Giovanni*, named *Cosmo*, had died before his father; and the two sons of *Piero* were as yet but children. The old and almost deserted parent having given directions to be carried to his vast palace, which he was no longer able to traverse on foot, exclaimed with a sigh, "This house is very large for so small a family."

*Cosmo* soon followed to the grave the son whom he regretted; dying at his house at Careggi, August 1. 1464, in his seventy-fifth year, equally lamented by friends and enemies. The first were attached to him by numberless benefits, and the second had learned to dread those who were to succeed him in the government of the republic. They well knew that *Cosmo*, by the sole credit of his name, forced them to be bounded in their ambition, and they trembled at the tyranny which awaited them when the state should be deprived of its moderator. The greatest citizen that ever arose to notice in a free country, he had been for thirty years at the head of a republic the most powerful and illustrious then in existence. With a good fortune more constant and a power far more durable than those of Pericles, he had, like the Grecian, enriched the new Athens with all the wonders of the arts. At Florence, he had built the convent and temple of St. Mark, and that of St. Lorenzo, and the cloister of St. Verdiana; on the mountain of Fiesole, he had constructed St. Jeronimo and Badia; in the Mugello, the temple of the Frati Minori. He had adorned with chapels, statues, pictures, and utensils of gold or silver designed for public worship, the churches Santa Croce, Degli Angeli, and San Miniato. He had built for himself four palaces in the country, at Careggi, Fiesole, Caffaggiuolo, and Trebbio; he had erected in the city the magnificent palace which at this day bears the name of *Riccardi*;

*cardi*; and, to crown all, he had formed a hospital at Jerusalem for pilgrims. Instead, however, of employing, like Pericles, the public revenues in the construction of these monuments, which have fixed the taste of fine architecture, he had accomplished the whole with his own riches; and, while these public labours not only announced a *sovereign*, but far surpassed in magnificence the greatest kings of Europe, neither his dress nor his table, nor his servants, nor his equipages, exceeded those of the common class of men. He conducted himself to every Florentine as an equal to an equal, and merely as a citizen; and he had neither himself married, nor contracted marriages for his sons and grand-daughters, with princes who were anxious for his alliance, but with families of the city of Florence which were considered by all to be his equals.

Without doubt, the reputation of *Cosmo de' Medici* has been preserved with greater lustre because his family aspired, after his death, to absolute authority in his country. Almost all the historians born under the influence of the *Medici* have endeavoured to flatter them in the portrait which they have drawn of their chief; and those who have held a contrary language have been forced to silence. Yet, a century after his death, the friends of liberty accused *Cosmo* of having excited the first war of Lucca before his exile, to augment his own importance, and of having prevented its success to ruin his enemies; of having enriched himself by excluding all his fellow-citizens from a participation in the public money; of having directed his vengeance against all that was illustrious in the republic; and of allying himself with the *Sforzas* for the sole advantage of his family, in opposition to the interests of his country.

The power of the *Medici* suffered no diminution under the hands of *Piero*. Infirm as he was, he was yet alive and awake to the aggrandizement of his house; and though the gout, to which he was subject, had been followed by a sort of paralysis, in confining his limbs it had left his head clear and fit for action. His sons, the heroes of very many volumes, announced in their tender years those talents which were destined to illustrate their name, but they were not yet of an age to take any part in the government. Brilliant festivals, justs, and tournaments, in which they now excelled, blinded the people in some degree to their misery; and as the learned, the only distributors of reputation in that age, were accustomed to receive presents and pensions from *Piero* as they had done from *Cosmo* his father, they have not hesitated to adorn him also with the title of *Mecænas*; to celebrate his wit, talents,  
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and understanding; and to represent him as the greatest because he was the richest citizen of Italy. 'Mr. Roscoe,' says M. DE SISMONDI, 'has collected together all these adulations lavished on the *Medici*, with a partiality for the whole family of his hero that was unworthy of his enlightened criticism and his love of liberty. He has diligently cast into the back ground of his recital all that could affect the memory of *Cosmo*, *Piero*, and *Lorenzo*; and he has refused his belief even to historians who were dependent on the family and obliged to flatter them incessantly.' In a word, the union of this family with the *Orsini* of Rome, by the marriage of *Lorenzo* with *Clarice* daughter of *Giacopo Orsini*, completed the destruction of liberty at Florence.

At the death of *Piero*, the government devolved *pro tempore* on *Soderini*, *Pazzi*, and their friends, who kept it but as a deposit for *Lorenzo* and his brother. It is true that their first attempt was to secure it to their own junta: but, failing in that design, *Soderini* assembled the more powerful citizens in the convent of San Antonio, presented to them *Lorenzo* and his brother, and recommended them to continue to these young men the credit which, for thirty-five years, had been enjoyed by their family; observing that it was easier to maintain a power strengthened by time than to found a new authority. M. SIMONDE observes that

'Mr. Roscoe doubts this intervention of *Soderini* and his associates, because *Lorenzo* in his *Ricordi* makes no mention of it; and he supposes that the remembrance of past services conferred by the *Medici* on their country, their foreign alliances, and immense riches, which of themselves must have rendered them suspicious in the eyes of their countrymen, were sufficient to guarantee to *Lorenzo* an authority so violently disputed against his father. Mr. Roscoe, deceived by the variable proportion of the florin to the livre, falls into a great error of calculation in estimating the golden florin at two shillings and sixpence, instead of ten shillings, its real value. By his account, the fortune of *Piero de' Medici* could not have been equal to 30,000*l.* sterling, a sum totally insufficient to have bought the liberties of the richest state in Europe. Mr. Roscoe, like all biographers, turns every thing to the advantage of his hero, and puts back the first appearance of the *Medici* in Florentine history a full century: whereas their *début* in the annals of their country was at the siege of Scarperia in 1351, and not as he relates. He exaggerates all the services of the family; he extenuates or passes over their crimes; and he conceals the independent and jealous spirit of the Florentines, who were far from bending voluntarily beneath the yoke of a prince, although they permitted their liberty to be shaken by a faction.'

The rest is but too well known. In expiring, however, Liberty had yet her avengers. Conspiracies against the houses  
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of *Hercules d'Este* at Ferrara, *Galeazzo Sforza* of Milan, and the *Medici* at Florence, were, in the course of three years, formed and defeated, to the extermination of their conductors. The republics, with the exception of Venice, which scarcely concerned herself with Italy, were no more. Instead of small republics and petty principalities, Spain, France, Germany, and England, were about to enter on the field of battle, and by their colossal size and weight to rivet the attention of Italy in common with the rest of the world. Nobles who were once almost the equals were now become the slaves of monarchs; armies were no longer counted by hundreds, but by tens of thousands; and liberty, driven from her last asylum in the little republics of Italy, was about to disappear, until recalled in her brighter, more glorious, and may we hope more durable form, to shed her blessings over Britain.

ART. VIII. *Mécanique Analytique*, &c.; i. e. *Analytical Mechanics*.

By J. L. LAGRANGE, of the Institute of Sciences, Letters, and Arts; of the Board of Longitude; Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, &c. &c. &c. 2 Vols. 4to. New Edition. Paris. Vol. I. 1811. Vol. II. 1815. Imported by De Boffe.

THE first edition of this work was published in 1788, and is so well known to mathematicians that it would be useless now to enter minutely into an explanation of its general plan and arrangement. It was also briefly announced in our lxxxth Vol. (*Old Series*), p. 163. We shall, therefore, in the present article, confine ourselves to pointing out the principal additions, alterations, and improvements which distinguish the second from the preceding impression. These are indeed very numerous and important, and would, we have reason to believe, have been still more so, had the author lived to have completed his undertaking: but unfortunately very little of the second volume was finished at the time of his death, only two or three sheets of the seventh section of Part ii. having been superintended by him through the press; and even the manuscript was not perfectly arranged beyond the commencement of the ninth section.

M. LAGRANGE was doubtless one of the most distinguished supporters and promoters of the analytical sciences that have appeared since our illustrious Newton. Indeed the only man who can be supposed to come in comparison with him in this respect is *Euler*, with whom he was for some years a contemporary, and whom he afterward succeeded in wielding the mathematical sceptre of modern Europe. *Euler* was in his  
thirtieth

thirtieth year when LAGRANGE was born: but the latter having very early distinguished himself as a mathematician, they held an epistolary correspondence with each other, while LAGRANGE was yet not more than twenty years of age. These communications originated in a remark made by Euler in his celebrated work, "*Methodus Inveniendi*," &c. &c. where he expressed a wish that a purely analytical solution of the general question of isoperimeters could be found. "*Desideratur*," says he, "*itaque methodus à resolutione geometrica et lineari libera, qua pateat in tali investigatione maximi minime, loco  $P d p$  scribi debere  $p d P$* ." This remark struck LAGRANGE; and in the pursuit of his inquiries he discovered his "Method of Variations," the greatest step that had been made in analysis since the sublime invention of the fluxional calculus, and which he afterward rendered the basis of his "*Mécanique Analytique*." Although this discovery was not published till the year 1762, in the fourth volume of the "*Mélanges de Turin*," he had (it seems) communicated it to Euler so early as 1755; at which time, as we before observed, he was only in his twentieth year, being born at Turin on the 20th of November 1736.

In 1756, LAGRANGE informed Euler of his success in being able to extend his beautiful theorem, relative to any system of *isolated* bodies, to any system of bodies acting on each other in any manner *whatever*; and made him acquainted with the method of using it to resolve all problems in dynamics. We see, likewise, by his prize-essay on the Libration of the Moon, in 1764, that he had already perceived that the principle of *least action* was only a consequence of the principle of *virtual velocities*. These first attempts of LAGRANGE may be considered as the foundation of his *Mécanique Analytique*: it is there that he first demonstrates the consequence to which we have above alluded; and there he says, without giving any account of the way by which he was led to the discovery, that he regards the principle of least action not as a metaphysical principle but as a simple and general result of the laws of mechanics.

The correspondence which thus took place between these two celebrated men, — the one already fifty years of age, unrivalled in mathematical fame, and at the head of one of the first scientific institutions in Europe, — the other a youth scarcely 20, but of the most promising talents, — is so honourable to both, by the manner in which it was conducted, that we cannot refrain from making a short abstract from the memoir of the author as given by Delambre, his friend and associate.

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*Euler's* first answer, says his biographer, consisted in making **LAGRANGE** an associate of the Berlin Academy; and when he announced to him his nomination, on the 20th of October 1759, he said, "Your solution of the problem of isoperimeters leaves nothing to desire; and I am happy that this subject, with which I was almost solely occupied since the first attempts, has been carried by you to the highest degree of perfection. The importance of the matter has induced me, with your assistance, to give an analytical solution of it: but I shall not publish it till you yourself have made known the sequel of your researches, in order that I may not deprive you of any part of the glory which is your due."

Again, in his dissertation above mentioned, he begins thus: "After having fatigued myself for a long time, and to no purpose, in endeavouring to find this integral, what was my astonishment when I learnt that, in the Turin Memoirs, the problem was resolved with as much facility as felicity! This fine discovery produced in me so much the more admiration, as it is very different from the methods which I had given, and far surpasses them all in simplicity."

Such were the terms in which the greatest mathematician of his time addressed his youthful competitor and rival; and, if they were flattering and well-merited on the part of **LAGRANGE**, they reflect not less honour on the generous and manly feelings of *Euler*: offering a noble lesson worthy of imitation from those who are following, though at a humble distance, the steps of these great masters.

Where such liberality of sentiment subsisted between two competitors for mathematical fame, it seems somewhat invidious to attempt a comparison; we shall therefore merely observe that if **LAGRANGE**, on the whole, did not surpass his predecessor in analytical invention and address, he was in all physical applications of them more guarded in his hypotheses and data:—so that, notwithstanding his works, though many, are much less numerous than those of the German professor, we may perhaps venture to assert that they have produced a greater proportion of important physical deductions and results. A variety of instances of this fact may be found in the treatise at present before us; although we must even here acknowledge that some of the most general formulæ and theorems can only be considered as solutions to the eye: the integration of the equations in many cases involving such immense difficulty, if not absolute impossibility, that they can be employed only in the simplest cases, while the equations themselves have been drawn from the most general principles of which the subject would possibly admit.

Passing from the author to his work, we shall now endeavour to give a succinct view of all the principal improvements that have been introduced into this second edition...

Section i. has undergone a very complete revision, containing several new remarks on the nature and connection of the three principles of Statics, and it is terminated by a direct demonstration of the theory of virtual velocities. — In section ii. it is demonstrated, in a manner more satisfactory than in the former edition, that this principle for any number of forces in equilibrio may be drawn from the case of two forces only; and the dependent and resulting equations are rendered still more general. — In the third section, the formulæ relating to the instantaneous movement of rotation, and to the composition of motion, are established in a manner more general and direct. This section also contains a new demonstration of the *maxima* and *minima* which take place in a state of equilibrium. — Section iv. furnishes more general and more simple formulæ for the solution of problems depending on the method of variations; and, by means of a comparison of these formulæ with those of a body of variable figure, it is shown that the questions relative to their equilibrium belong to the class of those which are known by the general term *isoperimeters*, and that they are resolvable in the same manner. — The fifth section includes several new problems, and many important remarks on some of the solutions offered in the first edition of this work. — In the sixth section, some extension is given to the historical analysis of the principles of Hydrostatics; and, in the seventh, more rigour and generality are introduced into the calculus of the variations of the molecules of a fluid, and a greater simplicity is imparted to the analysis of the terms which relate to the limits of the mass of a fluid. To this section also, and to the following, 'On the Equilibrium of compressible and elastic Fluids,' are added applications of the general formulæ to various cases of equilibrium.

The second part, which treats of Dynamics, contains a still greater number of additions. In the first section, the historical analysis is in some points rendered more complete. The second section presents an important addition, where it is shewn in what cases the general formulæ of Dynamics, and consequently the equations resulting from them for the motion of a system of bodies, are independent of the position of the axes of the co-ordinates in space; and which furnishes the means of completing a solution, where we shall have supposed some of the constant quantities to become zero, by the introduction of three new arbitrary constant quantities. Section iii. is also much altered and improved; the fourth is

nearly the same as in the first edition : but the fifth is entirely new ; containing the theory of the variations of constant arbitrary quantities, which formed the subject of three memoirs published in the volume of the Institute for 1803, and of which we have given our report in Vol. lxxv. M. R. — The sixth section, which is the last of this volume, is augmented by various remarks, as likewise by the solution of several problems on the very small oscillation of bodies ; and it is terminated by the theory of vibrating chords first published in the Memoirs of Turin, but presented here under a different point of view, by which the objections of *D'Alembert* against this theory are obviated.

Volume II. commences with the seventh section, and terminates with the twelfth : but we have before stated that, of these six sections, only the first two can be considered as having received the advantages of the finishing hand of M. LAGRANGE. After the author's death, M. Prony was charged with the superintendence of the remaining part of the work through the press, and was assisted in the revisions of the proofs by M. Garnier, professor at the Royal Military School. The manuscripts of the seventh and eighth sections were complete and ready for the press : but the ninth and succeeding sections had received no sort of arrangement from the able pen of their author. MM. Binet and La Croix were therefore associated with M. Prony, to make the necessary researches among the papers of M. LAGRANGE, in order to complete, if possible, the remaining parts of this important work.

It seems that the numerous avocations of M. Prony prevented him from attending so assiduously to this business as it might have been desired, to which circumstance may be attributed the delay that has taken place in the publication ; and though we have no doubt that the several able and distinguished mathematicians, who took on themselves this duty, have discharged it faithfully and to the best of their power, yet it will always remain a subject of regret that the work was not in a state of greater forwardness when the relentless hand of death snatched its author from the pursuit of his favourite occupation. On this account, two papers which, in all probability, were intended by M. LAGRANGE to be introduced into the body of the volume, — the one on the movement of rotation, and the other relating to the determination of the orbit of a comet, — are, in consequence of the incomplete state in which they were found, given merely as notes at the end of the volume.

Of the seventh section, the first article relates to the movement of a system of bodies regarded as points, with attractive forces acting on them ; and the second to the movement of a body regarded as a point, and attracted towards a fixed centre

by forces proportional to any function of the distance, particularly to the motion of the planets and comets about the sun.— It would be folly to attempt, within the limits of a few pages, any illustration of the method which the author pursues in these investigations, or to exhibit the comprehensive formulæ that he deduces from them : but some idea of their generality and extensive application may perhaps be conceived from a few partial abstracts, exhibiting many of the most important problems in physical astronomy which have become known one by one, through the labours of successive astronomers, and after a series of years spent in observations and computations, but which flow here from one general principle, as directly and naturally as the most obvious corollaries from the simplest geometrical theorems.

One of the first instances of this kind occurs at page 17.; where, after a few very obvious substitutions, the author arrives at what he calls the polar equation of a conic section, viz.

$r = \frac{b}{1 + e \cos \Phi}$ , where  $b$  is the parameter,  $e$  the excentricity, or the ratio of the distance of the foci to the major axis,  $r$  the radius vector, drawn from one of the foci, and  $\Phi$  the angle which it makes with the part of the major axis that is intercepted between the focus and the nearest point or summit of the curve. Now the greatest and the least values of  $r$  being  $\frac{b}{1 - e}$  and  $\frac{b}{1 + e}$ , their half sum will be  $\frac{b}{1 - e^2}$ , the mean distance; which being denoted by  $a$ , we shall have  $b = a(1 - e^2)$ ; and by substituting here for  $b$  and  $e$  their values as determined in the preceding part of this article, the author draws the equation

$$\frac{g}{a} = \frac{1 - e^2}{b} = \frac{-2H}{g},$$

$g$  representing the attractive force, and  $H$  a constant arbitrary quantity. From this equation, it appears that  $H$  ought to be negative, in order that the orbit may be elliptical; if it were zero, the axis  $2a$  would be infinite, and the orbit a parabola; but, if it were positive, the axis  $2a$  would be negative, and the orbit would be hyperbolic. In the first case, the value of the excentricity  $e$  will be less than unity; in the second, it will be equal to unity; and in the third greater. — Again, after having substituted  $1 - \frac{r}{a} = e \cos \theta$ , the author deduces, by means of a few transformations, the equation

$$\tan. \frac{\Phi}{2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1 + e}{1 - e}\right)} \times \tan \frac{\theta}{2}$$

from which he makes the following deductions: (p. 19.)

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'We see by these formulæ that, when the angle  $\theta$  is increased by  $360^\circ$ , the radius  $r$  will be still the same; and that the angle  $\phi$  is also augmented by the same quantity  $360^\circ$ . Thus the planet returns to the same point, after having made one entire revolution. Now the angle  $\theta$  being augmented by  $360^\circ$ , the time  $t$  will be found augmented by  $\sqrt{\frac{a^3}{g}} \times 360^\circ$ , which is the time that the planet takes in returning to the same point of its orbit, and is termed the *periodic* time. Thus it follows that this time depends only on the major axis  $2a$ , and it is the same as if the planet described a circle having for its radius the mean distance  $a$ . In this case, we should have  $e = 0$ ,  $t - c = \theta \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{g}}$ , and  $\theta = \phi$ ; thus the time will be proportional to the angles described; and if we suppose  $g = 1$ , and take the mean distance  $a$  of the earth as the unit of distance, the times will be represented by the same angles that the earth would describe if it moved in a circle of which the mean distance is the radius, with a velocity equal to unity. The motion in this circle is what is called by astronomers the *mean motion* of the earth, or of the sun; and to which they commonly refer the motions of the other planets.'

The author next proceeds to determine  $\theta$  in terms of  $t$ , viz. the excentric anomaly from the mean anomaly; commonly called *Kepler's* problem, because he was the first who proposed it, and attempted its solution. Here, however, as the equation between  $t$  and  $\theta$  is transcendental, it is impossible to obtain  $\theta$  in general and finite terms of  $t$ : but, when the excentricity is very small, (which happens with regard to the planets,) or when it is very great, (as in the comets,) an approximation may be made. This disparity, with others of a similar kind between the constant quantities representing the orbits and other elements of the system of the world, is one of the most remarkable circumstances which occur in the investigations of physical astronomy, and the favourite subject of conversation with the author. He would sometimes observe that 'Nature seems to have disposed these orbits on purpose to enable mathematicians to calculate them. Thus the excentricity of the planets is very small, and that of the comets very large; and without this disparity so favourable for approximations, and unless the constant quantities were of moderate greatness, farewell to mathematicians;—it would be impossible to do any thing.'

With these approximations, the author concludes his first chapter: the second treats of the variation in the elements of the planetary orbits, arising from impulsion and accelerative forces; one of the most difficult and delicate problems in



physical astronomy. — The first part of the subject, viz. where the force is finite and instantaneous, is in fact comparatively simple with regard to the second; it is also more speculative, and allows some scope for the imagination, in which the author has accordingly indulged at the conclusion of this inquiry. The extracts which we are about to make are certainly nothing more than conjectures, and may even to some of our readers appear fanciful reveries: but we shall offer no farther comment on them than by saying that they are the ideas of a great man, who fell as little into this kind of enchanting speculation as any philosopher of antient or modern times, not even excepting our illustrious Newton. The paragraphs to which we refer are these: (p. 74.)

‘ The principal circumstances of the motion of the planets about the sun lead us to believe that they had a determinate origin, but the contrary with regard to the comets; these have nothing common among them except their parabolic motion, or in general a motion in some one of the conic sections; and they appear to have been launched into space as it were by the mere operation of chance.

‘ We cannot suppose but that the same cause, which produced our planets, at the same time formed many others placed beyond Saturn, and describing similar orbits, as Uranus, but of which many might afterward become comets, by means of some internal explosions; for a planet being burst into two or more pieces by an internal explosive force, each of these pieces will receive an impulsion which will cause it to describe a different orbit from that of the planet; and in order that this orbit may be parabolical, it will not require the velocity produced by the explosion to exceed  $70 \sqrt{\frac{6}{r}}$  times that of a cannon-ball; where  $r$  is the mean distance of the planet from the sun, the distance of the earth from the sun being unity. For Saturn we have  $r=9$ , and for Uranus  $r=19$ ; and if we suppose  $r=24$ , it will require a velocity less than 35 times that which is produced by a handful of gunpowder.

‘ The hypothesis of a planet broken by an internal explosion has been already proposed by M. Olbers, to explain the near equality between the elements of the four new planets, and it appears to be confirmed by the variation in the light observed in these planets: which, while it indicates a motion of rotation, seems also to shew at the same time that their figure is not a solid of revolution, like the others: consequently, that they cannot be fluids; but that they were already hard and solid when they became planets.

‘ If we suppose the primitive orbit to be circular, and the orbit produced by the explosion to be elliptical, but little different from a circle, and a little inclined to the plane of the primitive orbit;

orbit; and if we regard only the first dimensions of the eccentricity  $E$ , and the sine of inclination  $I$ , we have

$$u = \frac{\sqrt{E^2 (\sin^2 \phi + \frac{1}{4} \cos^2 \phi) + \sin^2 I}}{\sqrt{r}}$$

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{E \sin \phi}{u \sqrt{r}}; \cos \beta = \frac{E \cos \phi}{2u \sqrt{r}}; \cos \gamma = \frac{\sin I}{u \sqrt{r}};$$

the angle  $\phi$  being that which the radius  $r$  makes with the radius from the perihelion.

Thence, since the eccentricities and the inclinations of the planets follow no law among themselves, and have nothing in common but their being very small, we may suppose that their orbits were circular in their original formation; and that they afterward became elliptical and inclined through the operation of small internal explosions. In fact, if a small piece  $m$  of the entire mass  $M$  of a planet were to be projected from it with a velocity  $V$ , sufficient to cause it to become a comet, the planet would receive in the contrary direction a small velocity  $\frac{mV}{M-m}$ , which would change its circular orbit into one that was elliptic and inclined to the plane of the former, as is the case with the planets of our system; and the same impulsion would also produce a corresponding change in its motion of rotation, as we shall see in what follows.

The remaining chapters of this section treat 'of the movement of a body drawn towards two fixed centres, by forces reciprocally proportional to the square of their distance;' and 'of the motion of two or more bodies which attract each other, particularly of the motion of the planets round the sun, and of the secular variations of their elements.'

Section viii. treats of the motion of bodies not isolated, but acting the one on the other in any manner whatever. This is the problem to which we have referred in the preceding part of this article, and which drew from Euler such liberal and just commendations of its author. Indeed, it exhibits perhaps one of the finest pieces of analytical investigation that is any where to be found; and, if it involves in it some cases of pure curiosity, it displays at the same time the extent of analytical resource, and the stupendous difficulties which it is calculated to overcome when directed by a skilful hand.

The ninth section is dedicated to the investigation of the movement of rotation of any system of bodies; and in the nineteenth page of it we meet with the following melancholy note: '*Ici se termine ce que l'on a pu trouver d'entièrement achevé sur le mouvement de rotation, dans les manuscrits de M. Lagrange.*' — Here, then, close the completed labours of this great ornament and promoter of modern analysis. He lived at a time and in a country in which the mathematical

sciences were carried to their highest point of perfection, and true genius had the most favourable opportunity of displaying itself and meeting its due reward. These opportunities he embraced; and he received in return the well merited honours that were due to his distinguished talents. Although not a Frenchman by birth, he was by descent; his great-grandfather having been a captain of horse in the service of France, but having gone over to that of Emanuel II. King of Sardinia, and eventually settled at Turin, where the author was born. After this city had been annexed to France, M. LAGRANGE was considered in every respect as a French citizen, and was ultimately raised to the dignity of a senator and Count of the empire; he was also Grand-officer of the Legion of Honour, and Grand Cross of the Imperial Order of Re-union. He died on the 10th of April 1813, in the 77th year of his age.

The two remaining sections of this volume relate to the principles of Hydrodynamics; the motion of incompressible fluids, and of those which are compressible and elastic. These sections differ less from the corresponding sections of the former edition than the preceding part of the treatise: but they contain some additions and alterations, as well in the materials as in the notation, which is changed throughout. — The whole is entirely founded on the “Calculus of Variations,” of which the author was the inventor; and all flows from one single formula, resting indeed on a principle known before his time, but the universality of which and its general application to the most difficult physical inquiries were far from being suspected. Many of his chapters commence with historical sketches, and other notices of discoveries and theories; stating the names of their authors, the modes in which they were first published, and frequently even the steps which led to them. Their defects and their merits are also criticized in such a spirit of candour, and with so masterly a hand, that the work may, on these points, be read with pleasure and advantage even by those who are not able to follow M. LAGRANGE through his more difficult investigations.

Perhaps we cannot conclude this article with an abstract more interesting to such of our readers as are not in possession of the treatise itself, than that of the list of the author's several writings, which is added by *La Croix* in nine pages at its conclusion: but we must endeavour to bring it into less compass.

*Separate Works.* — 1. A Letter addressed to *Julius Charles Fagnano*, containing a series for differentials and integrals of any order. 2. Additions to *Euler's Algebra*. 3. *Mécanique Analytique*. 1st ed. 1788; 2d ed. 1811 and 1815. 4. *Ré-solution*

*solution des Equations numériques*, 1st ed. 1798; 2d. 1808.  
 5. *Theory of Analytical Functions*, 1st ed. 1797; 2d ed. 1813. 6. *Lessons on the Calculus of Functions*, 1801.

*Memoirs of Turin*.—Vol. i. *Researches on the Method of Maxima and Minima; On the Integration of a differential Equation; On the Propagation of Sound*. Vol. ii. *New Researches on the Propagation of Sound; Essay on a new Method of determining the Maxima and Minima of indefinite integral Formulæ; Application of the preceding Method to the Solutions of different Problems in Dynamics*. Vol. iii. *On different Problems of the Integral Calculus; with their Applications to Hydrodynamics, Dynamics, and Physical Astronomy*. Vol. iv. *Solution of an Arithmetical Problem; On the Integration of certain differential Equations; On the Method of Variations; On the Motion of a Body attracted towards two fixed Centres*. Vol. v. *On the Figure of Columns; On the Utility of the Method of taking a Mean between many Observations*.

*Memoirs of Berlin*.—Vol. xxi. *On Tautochronous Curves*. Vol. xxii. *On the Transit of Venus, June 3. 1769*. Vol. xxiii. *On the Solution of indeterminate Problems of the second Degree; On the Resolution of Numerical Equations*. Vol. xxiv. *Additional Memoir on the Solution of Equations; New Method of solving indeterminate Problems in Integers; On the Resolution of Equations by Series*. Vol. xxv. *On the Force of Springs; On Kepler's Problem; On Elimination*.

*New Memoirs of the Berlin Academy*.—For 1770. *New Reflections on Tautochrones; An Arithmetical Theorem demonstrated; On the Solution of Algebraical Equations*. 1771. *Demonstration of a Property of prime Numbers; On the Solution of Equations*. 1772. *A new Species of Calculus relative to Differentiation and Integration; On the imaginary Roots of Equations; On Astronomical Refraction; On the Integration of partial Differences of the first Order*. 1773. *On the Rotation of a Body; On the Attraction of elliptic Spheroids; Solution of some Problems on triangular Pyramids; Numerical Investigation*. 1774. *On the particular Integrals of differential Equations; On the Motion of the Nodes*. 1775. *On recurring Series, with various Applications; Addition to the Memoirs on elliptic Spheroids; A Series of numerical Propositions*. 1776. *On the Alterations of the mean Motions of the Planets; Solution of certain Spherical Problems by means of Series; On continued Fractions*. 1777. *On the Number of imaginary Roots in literal Equations; Solution of some Diophantine Problems; On the Motion of many Bodies attracting each other; On Escapements*.

**Escapements.** 1778. On the Determination of the Orbits of Comets; A second Memoir on Ditto; On the Theory of Telescopes; On a particular Manner of expressing Time in the Conic Sections. 1779. On particular Integrals; Two Memoirs on the Construction of Geographical Charts. 1780. Theory of the Libration of the Moon. 1781. On the Motion of Fluids; On the secular Variation of the Orbits of the Planets, *1st Part*. 1782. Same Subject, *2d Part*. 1783. On the periodic Variations in the Motion of the Planets; On the secular Variation of the same; On the usual Methods of Approximations, and the Means of rectifying them; On a particular Method of Approximation and Interpolation; A new Property of the Centre-of Gravity; Third Memoir on the Determination of the Orbits of Comets. 1784. On the periodic Variations in the Motion of the Planets, *2d Part*. 1785. General Method of integrating partial Differences of the first Order. 1786. Geometrical Theory of the Motion of the Aphelia; On a Correction of Newton's Principles relative to the Propagation of Sound, and the Motion of Waves. 1787. On the secular and periodic Variations of the Elements of the Planet Herschel. 1792 and 1793. On Annuities; Various analytical Researches; viz. the general Term in recurring Series; The Attraction of Spheroids; On Interpolation; On the secular Equation of the Moon; and an Addition to the Memoir on the Planet Herschel. 1803. On a general Law of Optics.

*Academy of Sciences at Paris.*—1772. On the Formation of Tables of the Planets. 1774. On the secular Equation of the Motion of the Nodes, and Inclination of the planetary Orbits. Vol. ix. On the Libration of the Moon; On the inequalities of the Satellites of Jupiter; On the Problem of the Three Bodies.

*Recueil des Savans Etrangers.*—Vol. vii. On the secular Equation of the Moon. Vol. x. On the Derangement of a Comet which passes near a Planet.

*Institute of France.*—1808. On the Theory of the Variation of the Planets; On the general Theory of the Variations of the arbitrary constant Quantities in all Problems of Mechanics; Supplement to the preceding Memoir. 1809. A second Memoir on the same Subject.

*Journal of the Polytechnic School.*—Vol. ii. Numerical Analysis on the Transformation of Fractions; On the Principle of *Virtual Velocities*; On the Object of the Theory of analytical Functions; Problems relative to spherical Triangles. Vol. viii. On a singular Difficulty which occurs in the Calculation of the Attraction of Spheroids; and various papers

papers on Functions published in the author's *Lçons sur le Calcul des Fonctions*.

*Connaissance des Temps*.—1814. On the Origin of Comets.  
1817. On the Calculation of Eclipses subject to Parallaxes.

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ART. IX. *Voyage en Allemagne, &c.*; i. e. Travels in Germany and Poland. By G. GLEY, Principal of the College of Alençon. With Notes relative to the Embassy of M. de Pradt, Archbishop of Mechlin, at Warsaw. 8vo. pp. 200. Paris. 1816.

NOTWITHSTANDING his high sounding designation in the title-page, we understand that M. GLEY is neither more nor less than a school-master, who, having figured creditably in that character at Bamberg in Franconia, was induced (or, as he will have it, *compelled*) to follow the French army when invading the Prussian dominions in 1806. At the peace of Tilsit, he was sent to Warsaw, and remained there above five years in a capacity which he does not exactly describe, but which, in our humble apprehension, must have been that of *Commis* or Clerk to an officer in the civil service of the French government. The range of his observations, as far as political calculations or general views are concerned, is extremely limited; and in fact his merit is confined to a plain and apparently impartial account of the few topics that came under his personal notice, while accompanying the army or travelling by himself in Saxony and Poland. He begins with some remarks on the battle of Jena, or rather on the part performed in it by Marshal *Davout*; whose corps had, from its position, a principal share in stopping the retreat of the Prussians on that ill fated and ill conducted day. After a few observations on Berlin and the adjacent palaces, he relates (p. 62. *et seqq.*) the strange manner of the surrender of Custring, a fortress on the Oder of great importance, and which at the time was by no means in a state that could render necessary such a step on the part of the Commandant.

On setting out from Berlin to advance on the Oder, Marshal *Davout* had detached *Gudin's* division to invest Custring. At so late a season, no idea could be entertained of besieging regularly a place of such difficult access, and which there was reason for supposing to be abundantly provided with every requisite for a long and vigorous resistance. General *Gudin* had not even brought with him the apparatus of a siege; his only artillery being a park of field-pieces: but scarcely had the division taken a position before the town, when an aide-de-camp from the General arrived at Frankfurt with the news that the governor had capitulated. Nobody at first believed this report: question on question was put to the officer: but he assured us that on the first cannon-shot the governor was

was quite confounded; that in his terror he had consented to all that was asked; and that he had carried his submission so far as to send boats to General *Gudin*, in which his division might cross the Oder and enter the town.

'The Marshal proceeded immediately to Custrin; and, while he was talking over this unexpected event with *Gudin*, the first magistrate of the town (at whose house we had alighted) endeavoured, in a private conversation with me, to excuse the conduct of the governor. "He is," said he, "a good man, and an old officer; perhaps he may have been too easy on this occasion; and I am afraid he will be exposed to much censure. Only two cannon-shots had been fired when the women came, all alarmed, and threw themselves at his feet, and he was unable to resist their tears: a complaisance which will, I much fear, be fatal to him. He is very desirous of conversing with the Marshal; do you think he would be well received?" I replied that I had not the least doubt of it; and I had but just spoken when I saw the Governor enter. I was scarcely able to refrain from laughing aloud at beholding such a simpleton, of unusual stature, with legs of amazing length, and who betrayed by his features, his gestures, his address, and his words, all the imbecillity which his shameful surrender had indicated. I introduced him, and by what he said to the Marshal we were only confirmed in the idea which we had conceived of him; since he spoke of nothing but his apprehensions for his baggage, and the persons of his suite; of the means promised to him for their conveyance, and of the provisions which were to be furnished for him to the place of his destination. "What a booby!" said the Marshal, when I returned from shewing him out, "What meanness! You observed that he did not say a word either of his officers or his soldiers; he did nothing but plague me with talking of his portmanteaus."

About two years ago, (M. R. Vol. lxxv. p. 483.) we took notice of *Davout's* defence of his conduct at Hamburg, and mentioned that, although certainly not possessed of the milder virtues, he was by no means that monstrous compound of iniquity which he had been described to be by the heated imagination of party-writers. We have since seen that, on the King's second return to Paris, the Marshal consented to gain over the troops under his command without any unnecessary delay; and that he has not been charged with entertaining any unlawful correspondence with *Bonaparte* when at Elba. The testimony of M. GLEY with regard to *Davout's* conduct in Poland points to a similar conclusion.

'After the peace of Tilsit, the Marshal entered the duchy of Warsaw at the head of a corps of eighty thousand men, for whom it was requisite to secure provisions in a country already exhausted; and every where he met also with prejudices which it was necessary to overcome. Marshal N.'s corps, which had crossed the duchy in its way to Silesia, had behaved like a horde of robbers; the

the officers and soldiers dragging after them, without concealment, the fruits of their rapacity, and seeming to be occupied with nothing else than escorting the cattle, horses, and goods which they had carried off from the inhabitants: so that the Poles began to imagine that the French had entered their country for no other purpose but to pillage and destroy. To strike at the root of the evil, the Marshal established magazines, and was thus able to keep within bounds the soldiers, to whom he issued regular distributions. His severity led him to make several examples, for he neglected no means of preventing excesses; and if his orders were not always kept within the limits of strict prudence, but were sometimes given in too harsh a form, the rectitude of his intentions ought to be a sufficient apology. He felt strongly the greatness of the mischief and the difficulties of his situation.

‘On his arrival at Breslau, the magistrates waited on him to represent the straitened circumstances of the town, adding; “Marshal —, who has just left us, had fixed the daily expences of the table for himself and his officers at six or eight hundred pounds. This is a very heavy sum, considering our other wants; yet we will endeavour to raise it if you require it.” *Davout* replied; “In Poland, I made it a rule to suppress those odious exactions called expences of the General’s table. Your magazines will furnish me with the quantity of meat, bread, and forage to which I have a right as a General. The rest of my maintenance shall be at my own charge; my pay is sufficient for me.”’

In describing a tour into Saxony, in a different part of the volume, M. GLEY represents himself (p. 95.) as taking, with some friends, a sentimental walk at Pilnitz, near Dresden, on an elevation that afforded a most extensive view of the surrounding country. The prospect included many interesting objects, such as the camp of Pirna, the fortress of Koenigstein, the course of the Elbe, and the village of Hochkirchen where Marshal *Daum* obtained in October 1758 such important advantages over Frederick II. The persons who pointed out this memorable spot accompanied their recital with several circumstances explanatory of the causes of the success of the Austrians, and not of a nature to be introduced into a public dispatch.

‘Suspensions were entertained at the Austrian head-quarters of the fidelity of a secretary in one of the offices. This man, finding himself alone, and fancying himself in security, was one day busy in making out a communication for Frederick, when, Marshal *Daum* unexpectedly entering the room, the clerk put his paper under his portfolio with some marks of confusion. “What are you about there?” said the Marshal. — “I am composing verses.” — “Shew them to me.” — “General, they are not worthy to be seen by you.” — “That may be, but I wish to see them.” The secretary took the paper, gave it with trepidation to *Daum*, threw himself on the ground, clasping the Marshal’s knees, and confessed that he had deserved



deserved the severest punishment, but begged with tears that his family might be spared the disgrace which he had but too well merited. After having read the paper, the Marshal said, "You are a traitor, and I ought to hang you up at the entrance of the camp: but I pardon you. — Write."\* The Marshal then proceeded to dictate a very circumstantial dispatch, the contents of which were of a nature to tranquillize Frederick. It was as follows: "Every thing is quiet in the camp, and there is no idea of the smallest movement. This afternoon (it was the 13th of October) a regiment of Hulans and another of Hussars are to make a strong *reconnoissance*: but this must not give you any uneasiness, as these two corps are merely directed to cover the workmen who are going to construct the new ovens on the right of the camp." The packet was then made up like the dispatches which the secretary was in the habit of sending; and it was put into the hollow of an oak according to the plan concerted between him and Frederick.

In the evening, after having given the watch-word, Frederick said to his officers: "Nothing will take place to-night, I am sure; you will only relieve the advanced posts; the light cavalry may take off their bridles." Marshal *Keith* attempting to remonstrate: "Why should you interfere?" said the King, "I know what I say. I repeat it, nothing will happen; I have it from a man who has never deceived me. My orders are that the cavalry come in and take rest. I will not have my men exposed to unnecessary fatigue." *Keith* observed that the enemy was making movements that indicated an attack. "I know that," said Frederick, "as well as you: but I know the reason of it too: I answer for all consequences." *Keith* urged that he might be allowed to pass the night on horseback at the head of one of the regiments at least, but the King silenced him in a tone of impatience; and, an hour afterward, he sent to ascertain whether *Keith* had obeyed his directions. However, the latter had privately ordered two regiments to mount, in silence, and take their stations; and without this act of disobedience the whole Prussian army would have been cut off.

On the next morning, (the 14th,) being the festival of Maria Theresa, at the moment when the village-clock struck five, the Austrian army rushed into the Prussian camp. The King was called up, and told that the camp was forced, and that the enemy had obtained possession of the great battery. Here was no time nor opportunity for manœuvring, but desperate courage and straight-forward-fighting must make up for the want of combination. Marshal *Keith*, with the Princes of Brunswick and Anhalt, performed prodigies of valour in attempting to re-take the village: in the course of which the first two were left dead on the field of battle, and the last was wounded. Frederick retired slowly to a small distance, having lost all his cannon and one-third of his army.

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\* See an allusion to this circumstance in p. 36. of the Review for September, published with this Appendix.

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' This victory procured for *Daun* the most honourable testimonies of gratitude and admiration. The city of Vienna erected a statue to him; Maria Theresa wrote to him in the most flattering terms; the Empress of Russia sent him a beautiful sabre; and Pope Clement XIII. presented him with a cap and a consecrated sword.

' Frederick was more successful at Torgau, on the 3d of November 1760: but the shock of the two armies in this sanguinary action was long and dreadful. *Daun* and the King, having both thrown themselves into the midst of the combatants, were both obliged to leave the field; the monarch in consequence of a ball having grazed his breast, and the Marshal from having received a severer wound. He left the command to General *O'Donnell*. It was then six o'clock in the evening, and before he retired he had dispatched a courier to Vienna with accounts of his being on the point of obtaining a complete victory. The King, having had his wound dressed, returned, as it was thought, to conduct the retreat: but in the mean time the veteran General *Ziethen* arrived on the heights with a corps of twelve thousand men, which had not yet been engaged, and made a furious charge on the enemy, who were already celebrating the victory on the field of battle. The Austrians, fatigued by a destructive combat, and discouraged by the absence of their commander, were unable to resist this unexpected attack: but they retired in good order; and Frederick rushed forwards to support *Ziethen*, and to gather the laurels which that able and enterprising officer had prepared for him.'

The latter half of this work consists of notes relative to *M. de Pradt's* publication on his embassy to Warsaw, and controverts in a variety of points the assertions of that diplomatist. Our readers are already apprized of the qualifications with which several of *M. de P.'s* allegations should be received; and *M. GLEY's* comments are of too minute and trifling a nature to claim their attention. Indeed, the particulars introduced by him refer generally to individuals, who, whatever may be their notoriety at Warsaw, have not yet succeeded in extending their reputation to London or Paris. The personages of real consideration described by him are the Kings of Prussia and Saxony, both of whom he exhibits as highly amiable in private life, and deserving of happier days than have yet fallen to the lot of either. He says that the origin of the recent misfortunes of the former, and of the present distress of the latter, is to be traced to one and the same cause; a too easy compliance with the suggestions of artful and calculating ministers. Another part of his comments, which under present circumstances will scarcely be deemed disinterested, is the abuse poured out (p. 139.) on *Jerome Bonaparte*, and other members of a family which, with one exception, had neither vices nor talents beyond mediocrity,

mediocrity, and are not likely again to disturb the peace of Europe. We suspect, indeed, that the publication of this little volume was prompted by a desire to redeem, in the eye of the world, the author's trespass of having served an obnoxious master; although a farther and more commendable motive may have been to make himself known as a literary labourer in the hitherto little cultivated field of Polish history. A notice to that effect is given (p. 175.) at considerable length; and the preface evidently implies a disposition to produce a work on the subject, particularly on the early period of the Polish annals, as soon as circumstances permit. Judging from the present specimen, we should expect neatness and animation of style, with a very slender share of original reflection.

We close this notice with a short extract relative to another literary undertaking, which, if well executed, will possess considerable attraction for the etymologist.

'M. *Lindé*, a professor at Warsaw, one of the profoundest linguists that I know, has been employed for a great many years on a Polish dictionary, which is singular in its kind. Each word is explained in the antient Russian, in modern Russian, in Bohemian, and in the other Sclavonian languages to the number of thirteen. Every one of these has examples to each word, taken from its own literature. The Emperor Alexander gave five hundred ducats to defray the first expences of the undertaking; to which the *Csar-torinskis*, the *Asolinskis*, the *Radzivils*, the *Zamoyakis*, and the *Potockis*, have constantly contributed, with a liberality worthy of the affection which these great families manifest towards literature and its cultivators.'

ART. X. *Les Œuvres d'Euclide, &c.; i. e.* The Works of Euclid, translated into Latin and French, from a very Antient Manuscript which has remained unknown till the present Time. By F. PEYRARD, Translator of the Works of Archimedes. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 560. Paris. 1814. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3l. 3s.

THE author of this performance published in 1804 a French version of the first four and the 6th, 11th, and 12th books of Euclid, at which time he promised a complete translation of all the works of Euclid, Apollonius, and Archimedes. In 1808 the latter appeared; and we have here the first volume of the works of Euclid in Greek, Latin, and French: the Greek and Latin being printed in double columns, and the French running across the whole page below.

We are told that the Greek text is given from a very old manuscript, viz. one of the ninth century, belonging to the

library of the Vatican, brought from Rome to Paris by M. *Monge*. Besides this valuable manuscript (No. 190.), the Imperial library contained, at the time when this edition was in progress, twenty-two others, but all of a more recent date, viz. of the 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, &c. centuries. These latter differ from each other in a variety of places, and are supposed by M. PEYRARD to have been drawn from the edition of Theon, or other commentators who have followed him: but No. 190. he considers as the true text of Euclid, 'being more pure, more clear, less prolix, and even more intelligible than any other manuscript, or than the Basle or Oxford edition.' Yet, in giving this as the true text of Euclid, it is obvious that we must attribute to this celebrated geometer many slips and inaccuracies of which we can scarcely conceive him to have been guilty; although we may not possess all that enthusiastic admiration which belonged to Dr. Simson, and which led him to treat with unmerited contempt every geometer but himself and his author. As M. PEYRARD's devotion to Euclid is not far behind that of Dr. Simson, we are the more surprized to find him suggesting that this is the true copy of the antient work. We can advance no argument to refute that conjecture, but we may observe that it does not appear to be sufficiently established.

'Being in possession,' says M. PEYRARD, 'of this invaluable manuscript, I determined without hesitation to give an edition in Greek, Latin, and French, of the Elements and the data of Euclid, which are certainly the only works that we possess of this celebrated geometer.' For this purpose, he began by comparing his MS. with the Oxford edition, writing the variations in the margin of the printed copy. This task being finished, he examined very attentively the marginal notes; and, by consulting the other manuscripts, he adopted or rejected such variations as seemed requisite, but in all cases giving the preference to No. 190., unless strong reason appeared for a deviation. The Greek text being thus completed, it was rendered into Latin word for word, with the amended text, at least as far as the nature of the two languages would allow; on which account we find in this translation a few expressions that are not strictly conformable to the genius of the Latin;—imperfections which the editor might have avoided by allowing himself a little more freedom, though he would certainly have thus made the interpretation a less faithful copy of the original. As to the French version, it was already made, and he had only to insert in it such changes as the variations which he had adopted rendered necessary.

In this state, the work was transmitted to the Institute for the approbation of that learned body; and, after some amendments, it was sent to press, and at length given to the public; with a collection of all the variations of this edition, and that of Oxford, and the MS. No. 190. Any person who wishes for an exact transcript of the latter may thus obtain it, and every body is also enabled to judge of the propriety of the several alterations; on which head, doubtless, various opinions will be formed.

Such are the general plan and arrangement of this translation, with the means that have been employed in its execution, in order to produce a faithful edition of the works of this great master; and though it yet contains several press-errors, and probably some errors of judgment, we have little hesitation in receiving it as a far more perfect edition than any that has before been published.

In the preface, which is written in Latin and French, the author enumerates many of the most celebrated translations and editions of the *Elements*; beginning with that of Campanus, published in Latin from an Arabic version, at Paris, in 1482. The Greek text appeared for the first time at Basle in 1533, edited by Simon Gryneus; in which the fifteen books of the *Elements* were printed from two manuscripts sent for that purpose to Gryneus, the one from Venice and the other from Paris. This has been the foundation of most of the editions that have since appeared; and it was this which Commandine employed in his celebrated translation published in 1572, and again in 1619. It was this also which Gregory used in preparing the Oxford edition; (at least for the fifteen books of the elements, but for the data he employed the translation of Hardi;) and lastly Simson's translation of the first six books, with the 11th and 12th published in 1756, is also drawn principally from the same source; viz. from the edition of Commandine. That edition, which has obtained great estimation, contains many wide deviations from the Greek text; the author having no manuscript to which he could refer, and laying it down in his mind as a sort of axiom that Euclid could not be inaccurate, and that he had written a complete work. He concluded, therefore, that every imperfection which he discovered was attributable to Theon, or some other commentator, on whom he bestows very liberally the terms *ignorant editors*, *unskilful geometers*, &c. &c.; and in all such places he re-established, as he supposed, the true text of Euclid. So far, however, as this manuscript No. 190. is testimony, we find that he has at least as frequently gone off from his author as he approached towards

towards him; though perhaps but few instances occur in which he has not *improved* where he *altered*.

We must now speak of a few of the most striking variations and alterations in the present edition, as compared with that of Oxford or rather perhaps with that of Simson, which is much better known and more easily consulted. The first which we find, of any importance, is a transfer of what are generally given as the last three axioms, to occupy the same relative situation among the postulates. This change, it seems, is justified by every manuscript except one, notwithstanding that all the Latin and Greek editions give them among the axioms; excepting only that of Campanus, translated from the Arabic, and that of Zamberti, made from the Greek before the time of the Basle edition by Grynæus. The latter author, therefore, in all probability, judging that these propositions were misplaced, changed the accusative into the nominative, and the infinitive into the indicative, in order to transfer them to what he considered as their proper places. Such, at least, is the opinion of *Delambre*.

Another change, but not authorized by any manuscript, is made in prop. 7. book 1. This proposition has two cases belonging to it, or three according to Dr. Simson, of which he demonstrates the first and second; and his third requires no demonstration. It is very remarkable that not one of the manuscripts in the Imperial library has more than one case, and one figure. Nothing, therefore, seems more conclusive than that the second case was omitted in the original, although by this omission the second part of the fifth proposition becomes useless. Clavius hence saw the necessity of a new developement, and he employed for this purpose five figures and five demonstrations: which, however, he might have reduced to three. Dr. Simson, as we have before observed, has only two cases to demonstrate and two figures; and in his notes he complains of the ridiculous reasoning that Proclus has advanced relative to this proposition.

M. PEYRARD must have felt that the omissions in all the manuscripts went far towards establishing a real blemish in the Elements, of which inference he appears to have just the same dread which Simson entertained; and there was in this case no ignorant editor to blame, nor any unskilful geometer to-reprobate; because the same defect ran through all the MSS., even the favourite No. 190., which the editor considered as the true text of Euclid. It was, therefore, doubtless, highly gratifying to M. PEYRARD, in this hopeless state of the proposition, to discover that, by adding Simson's second figure, and the words (καὶ αἱ ΒΓ, ΒΔ ἐκβεβλήσθωσαν ἐπ' αὐθείας

M m 2

ἐπὶ

in  $\tau\alpha$  E, Z,) to the end of the construction, the single demonstration of the MS. suits both cases; and thus, he says, 'the demonstration is completed *without altering a single word.*' Certainly no word is altered, but *some are added*; for the omission of which, together with the second figure, and the lines produced in the first, it is as difficult to account as for the omission of the entire demonstration of the second case. All that we are disposed to admit in this instance is that M. PEYRARD has made an ingenious amendment, and that he has rather improved than restored the text of his author.

In proposition 15. the editor has left out the second corollary, viz. "that all the angles made by any number of lines meeting in one point are together equal to four right angles." This, it seems, has not a place in most of the MSS. of the Imperial Library, but is found in some of them. Still, as there was reason to suppose that it was not originally given by Euclid, it is suppressed in the present edition. Some other slight alterations are made in several other propositions of the first book, as in the 20th, 26th, 27th, 29th; in the latter of which the editor has deemed himself justified in deviating from his author, and following the text of the Oxford edition. In all such cases, however, the variations are given at the end of the volume, so that we can always discover the reading of the manuscript.

Of the 24th proposition of the third book, three cases are made, whereas Simson has only one. The latter author says, in his notes to propositions 23. and 24., "It is demonstrated that the segment  $AEB$  must coincide with the segment  $CFD$ , and that it cannot fall otherwise, as  $CGD$ , (referring to *Commandine's* figure,) so as to cut the other circle in a third point  $G$ , from this, that, if it did, a circle could cut another in more points than two. But this ought to have been proved to be impossible in the 23d proposition, as well as that one of the segments cannot fall within the other. This part, then, is left out of the 24th, and put in its proper place in the 23d proposition." M. PEYRARD, however, has supplied the defect here pointed out by Simson from the manuscript of the Vatican; and he demonstrates all the three cases in proposition 24. — We might specify a variety of other similar corrections, which are founded on the manuscripts, and some that may be considered as corrections and improvements of the original text: but we think that they would possess little interest, unless our readers had the new edition before them.

The merit of the present undertaking consists in presenting the public with, no doubt, the most accurate text of the *Elements*

of

of Euclid that has yet appeared: but it is more particularly valuable as it furnishes, by means of the table of variations, a correct copy of the Vatican manuscript; which seems to be the most antient and most perfect transcript of the original work now extant. — This MS. is now, we suppose, again transferred to Rome, where it will probably lie and moulder in obscurity. The manner in which the French obtained this and other valuable relics of antiquity certainly demanded their restitution: but it would be injustice not to add that, while they had them in possession, they were employed to the noblest purposes which they were calculated to answer, viz. the propagation of knowledge, and the advancement of the arts and sciences.

ART. XI. *Histoire de l'Anatomie, &c.; i. e. A History of Anatomy.*

By THOMAS LAUTH, M.D. Professor of Anatomy at Strasburg, Physician to the Civil Hospital, &c. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 606. Strasburg. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. sewed.

IN a preliminary discourse, the author states that he undertook this work 'in order to fill up a gap which exists, with respect to anatomy, in the history of human knowledge. *Gaëlicke* and *Portal* have written the history of anatomists, but not that of anatomy: *Lassus* limits himself to an indication of the discoveries which have been made in this science; and the historians of medicine and surgery, *Schulze*, *Leclerc*, *Freind*, *Dujardin*, *Peyrilke*, and *Sprengel*, necessarily confined themselves to general views, when they made the history of anatomy a part of their plan.' As a farther reason for commencing this labour, M. LAUTH mentions the 'strong prejudice which most writers manifest for the antients: in consequence of which, instead of duly balancing their merits and defects, detailing their opinions with impartiality, and attaching importance only to what is true and reasonable, it has been too much the custom to endeavour to find in them the complete range of all human knowledge. This censure might have been attached very justly to the authors of the last century, and may perhaps still be applicable to those of France: but we think that it can scarcely be urged against our contemporaries in this country. — The plan of the present publication is thus announced: 'Every epoch is divided into two parts; of which the first, or the historical part, contains the history of the science itself; and the second, or the biographical part, is destined to the description of the life of anatomists and of their works.'



The volume consists of six books, corresponding with the six principal æras into which the history of anatomy is supposed to be divided. These periods comprehend respectively the anatomy of the Egyptians, of the philosophers of Greece, of the Asclepiades, of the school of Alexandria, of *Galen*, and of the school of Italy, under which last denomination the author comprizes the anatomy of all the moderns. To this division, probably, no very serious objection can be urged; since the inequality of the portions of the book which must be devoted to the different parts is merely a technical difficulty, which scarcely attaches to the fundamental merits of the arrangement.

A certain degree of civilization, to which the Egyptians arrived in the most remote ages of antiquity, has induced some persons to attribute to them, among their other supposed acquirements, a knowledge of anatomy; and this, it has been alleged, is farther proved by the art which this people possessed of embalming bodies. There seems, however, to be no real foundation for this claim; the preparation of the subject for embalming being an art that was practised without any reference to scientific principles, and in which no regard was paid to the structure of the body, but all the soft parts were destroyed, and nothing was left besides the bones, the skin, and some of the thicker membranes. It farther appears that the practice of this art, rude as it was, belonged exclusively to the priests, and that very strong prejudices prevailed against the dissection even of brute-animals. Better grounds perhaps exist for supposing that anatomy was cultivated by the philosophers of Greece; and it is probable that *Pythagoras*, *Democritus*, and others, paid some attention to the structure of the animal body: but it is doubtful whether they pursued the study of anatomy in a regular and scientific manner, even so far as the examination of the inferior animals is concerned; and we have every reason for believing that they never attempted the dissection of a human body.

The next period, which the author adopts in the history of anatomy, is that of the *Asclepiades*. They were the descendants of *Esculapius*, who were supposed to possess the hereditary knowledge of their ancestor, and who exercised the art of medicine in certain temples dedicated to him, of which the chief were in the islands of Cos, Rhodes, and Cnidos. From this race sprang the celebrated *Hippocrates*, who is said to have been the 18th in direct descent from *Esculapius*, and who is universally regarded as the father of rational medicine. The anatomical knowledge of *Hippocrates* is generally admitted to have been considerable, and has been made the subject of

almost extravagant eulogium among his admirers in modern times. It is, however, very difficult exactly to ascertain the precise degree of merit which belongs to him: the most learned commentators have found it impossible to determine, with certainty, which of the numerous productions, that are classed among his writings, were actually the production of his pen; and it is rather by implication than by any direct evidence that we judge of his knowledge on this subject. This difficulty has induced M. LAUTH to apply, for the purpose of what he calls an anatomical measure, the anatomy of *Aristotle*. 'The opinions examined by this philosopher were necessarily anterior to him; and, consequently, the treatises in which these opinions are brought forwards must have existed before *Aristotle* wrote.' Some of these pieces may indeed have been written by the sons or pupils of *Hippocrates*, but they may nevertheless be regarded as exhibiting the state of knowledge in his age, and as, in some degree, sanctioned by his authority. Proceeding on this ground, the opinion which M. LAUTH forms of the anatomical acquirement of the Coan sage is not very favourable. 'It is limited,' he observes, 'to notices which may proceed in part from the inspection of sacrificed victims, and in part from the contemplation of the living man. The most important viscera have received appropriate names: but there appears to have been no precise knowledge of their structure or relation to each other; the nature of the nerves and vessels was completely misunderstood; and it is to be concluded that the writers of the Hippocratic school could never have dissected a body, or even examined a skeleton.' The opinions of *Plato*, respecting the composition of the human body, are so remote from truth as to render it evident that he never could have contemplated its structure.

M. LAUTH's judgment respecting the anatomical science of *Aristotle* is more favourable. Admitting that he made considerable advances in that study, and that he exhibited even a minute acquaintance with the structure of certain parts, yet, at the same time, he fell into such gross errors that, if on the one hand we should be induced to conceive that he must have been well versed in dissections, still, on the contrary, we might suppose him to be totally ignorant of the subject. On the whole, the opinion to which the present author inclines is that *Aristotle* did not himself investigate the minute structure of the parts of animals by dissection, but that he had many opportunities of making observations on the external form of the body in general, and even of many of its individual parts; and that he augmented our knowledge rather

as a natural historian than as an anatomist. M. LAUTH justly observes that it requires a more assiduous application than persons generally suppose, to obtain the address which is necessary for a good dissection; and that, 'without an experienced eye, it is impossible to perceive what an able hand has developed.' In order to prosecute natural history, a man must have been born with a talent for observation: but, to become an anatomist, a persevering application and great delicacy of proceeding are indispensable, which presuppose a more advanced state of mental improvement. Hence we may expect the former to precede the latter, at least in the first instance; although subsequently the perfection of natural history requires the aid of a minute examination of the body. — Having made these general remarks, the author proceeds to inquire more minutely into the knowledge possessed by the *Asclepiades*, and more particularly by *Aristotle*, respecting the different parts of the body, their ideas of its general structure, and its division into what they called the different regions: then follow osteology, myology, angiology, neurology, and splanchnology; which last is again subdivided into the brain, the organs of sense, the lungs, the heart, the stomach, &c. In the biographical part of this period, are contained brief notices of the lives and writings of *Hippocrates*, *Diocles*, *Aristotle*, and *Praxagoras*.

After a short account, in the fourth book, of the anatomy of the school of Alexandria, we arrive at the interesting æra of *Galen*, who reigned without a rival for many ages over medicine, as *Aristotle* reigned over philosophy and natural history. 'Anatomy, physiology, the *materia medica*, and medicine, are the sciences on which *Galen* has written many learned and profound works, and which conspicuously display the literature and philosophy with which his mind was adorned. What these illustrious names were in antiquity, *Boerhaave*, *Linné*, and *Haller* would have now been in medicine, natural history, and physiology, if the almost infinite number of learned men did not impress on the sciences so rapid a progress, that the most decided merit produces an æra for a very limited time only.' The period which is included under the title of the anatomy of *Galen* is divided into five parts; that of *Galen* himself, of his successors among the Greeks, of the Arabians, of the writers of the middle ages, and of those who lived at the revival of letters, but who were still devotedly attached to the Galenic principles. Of these parts the first is the most interesting: it comprehends observations on the life of *Galen*, on his character, on the nature of the subjects dissected by him, on his  
pathology,

pathology, and on the knowledge which he possessed concerning the structure of the individual parts. The author zealously defends the personal character of *Galen* against some accusations which have been urged; and sufficient reason seems to exist for believing that he is intitled to our respect not only by his general deportment, but more especially by the use which he made of his talents. The writings of *Galen* are very numerous; some of them being purely anatomical, while others consist of physiological discussions, in which the structure of different parts is introduced for the purpose of illustration.

After the revival of letters, and when the mind began to free itself from the shackles of authority in which it had been fettered for many centuries, an interesting question arose whether *Galen*, in his anatomical works, described the organs of man; or whether his descriptions, which he applied to the human body, were not really taken from inferior animals. 'These authors, such as *Sylvius* and *Riolanus*, in whose eyes *Galen* is the most perfect master in anatomy, maintain the former opinion, while *Vesalius* first gave rise to the discussion in advancing the second.'

In reference to this controversy, M. LAUTH proposes to consider the following questions in succession: 1st, Has *Galen* dissected animals? 2dly, What are the animals which he employed? 3dly, Has he also practised human anatomy? and 4thly, Has he described the anatomy of man or that of other animals? Some passages are quoted from the works of *Galen* himself, where he speaks of the manner in which he had acquired his anatomical knowledge; and from these it is concluded that, in his time, the dissection of the human subject was not practised, and that even the dissection of other animals was not very frequent. With respect to the kind of animals which were employed, he informs us that he made use of monkeys or apes, which most nearly resembled the human body in their external form, although we may have some doubt as to the exact species: but, if the examination of the human body was very rare in the time of *Galen*, and appears to have been scarcely ever practised by any of his contemporaries, we may suppose, from some passages in his writings, that on certain occasions he had examined the human skeleton, and even, perhaps, in one instance, dissected a human body. Notwithstanding this circumstance, and likewise that he sometimes refers to the difference between the anatomy of man and that of other animals, it is probable that in general he derived his description from some species of apes, which he imagined were similar to the human form. The conclusion at which the author arrives on this subject is the following:

‘It results from the considerations that I have brought into view, that *Vesalius* and *Camper* go too far when they say that *Galen* never dissected the human body; or, at least, that he has not made use of it in the composition of his works. It farther results from them that *Eustachius* and *Riolanus* have only proved, the one that he suffered himself to be carried away by his prepossession against *Vesalius*, when he pretended to demonstrate that *Galen* made use only of human subjects in his dissections; and the other, how little acquainted he was with the principles of a good critic, when he advances the opinion that *Galen* dissected both men and apes, but that his anatomical descriptions refer only to the former. We are the more justified in passing this judgment on *Riolanus*, because *Columbus*, *Fallopian*, *Valverde*, *Ingrassias*, *Arantius*, &c. who have, as far as they could, defended *Galen* against *Vesalius*, have however confessed that the descriptions of *Galen* must have been taken from the ape, according to *Vesalius*’s assertion.’

Passing from these observations on the means which *Galen* possessed for acquiring anatomical knowledge, we next proceed to examine what use he actually made of them; and for this purpose we have a detailed account of the anatomy of *Galen*, beginning with his general doctrine on the subject, and afterward reviewing his opinions on all the different parts and organs of the body. A melancholy picture is drawn of the state of anatomical science after the age of *Galen*. ‘From the death of *Galen* in 201, to the publication of the anatomy of *Vesalius* in 1543, is an interval of 1342 years; during which anatomy did not make any progress, and which forms a very mournful æra for the human mind, on account of the retrograde motion of its energy and its knowledge. The invasion of the Huns, the Goths, and the other barbarians, was only one of the causes which brought back barbarism.’—The author goes on to observe that *Galen* obtained the greatest success by the sole efforts of his genius and application; and that he was not much indebted to the state of the times in which he lived: the schools of anatomy, particularly that of *Alexandria*, having for some time fallen into decay. It does not appear that his brilliant example produced the kind of effect that might have been expected from it.

‘After this great man, the learned and the men of letters fell into new discussions, which absorbed all their faculties, and turned off their attention from every species of useful research. Instead of imitating the great masters of antiquity, and investigating nature, the physicians confined themselves to comprehend, and placed their glory in explaining, the works of their predecessors; and the circumstance which especially characterizes the decay of the human mind at this period is to be found in the works themselves which were published: the men of the best talents having produced

produced nothing but compilations, extracts, and abridgments, so that the greatest number were contented with this defective aid, and neglected to have recourse to the original works, or to consult nature herself.

A short account is given of the state of anatomical science among the Arabs in what are called the middle ages, and at the first revival of letters; during the whole of which period scarcely a single addition was made to the knowledge that had been acquired by *Galen*. We then arrive at a more interesting part of the history; when *Vesalius*, trusting to the efforts of his own genius, ventured to examine for himself the structure of the body, and did not hesitate to call in question the authority of *Galen*, if he did not find it supported by the evidence of his own dissections. 'By his noble boldness,' says the author, 'he broke the bonds which chained the mind to the opinions of *Galen*, and which kept the learned in servile dependence. Like a courageous lion, he braved all obstacles, disregarded the danger with which his career was surrounded, and removed the shackles which had repressed the energy of his predecessors. It is from this cause that he leaves them at a great distance behind him, and that their works are eclipsed by the brilliant light of his own.' *Vesalius* was not less fortunate in the time of his appearance; a general impulse having at that period been given to the human mind, so that superstitions and prejudices of all kinds were rapidly on the decline. The benefit of this change of opinion was immediately experienced by the anatomist, in acquiring a greater facility of obtaining subjects for examination. We are informed that Charles V., in consequence of the high reputation of *Vesalius*, consulted the University of Salamanca on the question whether it was allowable to permit bodies to be dissected, and that an answer was given in the affirmative. — In appreciating the merits of this great man, M. LAUTH makes the ensuing remarks:

'Let us now see what are the principal foundations of the reform which was effected by *Vesalius*. He established that the authority of the works of *Galen* ought to be subordinate to the inspection of bodies: he observed that the anatomy of *Galen*, deduced from the ape, is not conformable to the human structure; and he traces the lines of distinction between the two. Anatomists, since the school of Alexandria, had, from time to time, practised dissection: but, in speaking of the organs, they neglected to mention to what subjects they belonged. *Galen* remarked, indeed, that the structure of animals differs from that of man: but he does not distinguish this last from that of the ape; and the successors of *Galen* especially applied to man the anatomy of this author, although he says himself that he dissected the ape. On this account, *Vesalius*, who wished

wished to give the human anatomy, was obliged, in a great number of cases, to hold up to view the errors of *Galen*, and to assign the reasons for which he contradicted him; since, without this precaution, the same uncertainty would have always prevailed with respect to the subject to which his description refers. *Vesalius* then, even although he had not made any discoveries himself, would have been the first anatomist of his age; because, having found the science closed up as to any real progress, he knew how to facilitate the approach to it by creating human anatomy. *Vesalius* restored anatomy, which had fallen since the time of *Galen* from the splendour that this great man had imparted to it; and in the same manner in which *Galen* restored and augmented the Alexandrian anatomy, so *Vesalius* re-established and perfected the Galenic anatomy. The irregularity and the defects of his work did not destroy the glory of it, but only shew that the road which he opened was calculated to conduct other learned men as well as himself to celebrity.

M. LAUTH then describes, in an interesting manner, the attacks that were made on *Vesalius* by those who still pertinaciously adhered to the doctrines of *Galen*, and the numerous discoveries that were made by his pupils and successors: who were, in the first instance, nearly confined to Italy, but afterward spread into France, and still later into Germany, Holland, the North of Europe, and England. All these the author regards as belonging to the same æra, which he denominates the school of Italy; and he arranges them into separate sections, corresponding with the above-mentioned countries. As making a part of the history of this period, and as having assisted very essentially in the improvements of the science, the different public establishments which were then formed are also detailed. Professorships of anatomy were founded at Padua, Rome, Bologna, and Pisa; they were afterward extended to Montpellier and Paris, and finally to some cities in Holland and Germany. Great attention began to be paid about this time to the delineation of anatomical plates, to comparative anatomy, and to pathology, as connected with anatomy. Of the rise and progress of these collateral branches of the science, we have here a brief sketch, and then a more particular history of the progress that was made by the Italian school, in all the separate departments of anatomy. It is observed that 'the parts which compose the animal organization have been described so much in detail by *Galen* as not to render it necessary, in beginning a new æra, to repeat the enumeration; it is sufficient to notice the additions and corrections which have been successively made to them: nevertheless, the great number of the first, and the importance of the second, have almost totally changed the face

of anatomy.'—The historian then takes a view of the improvements that were made by *Vesalius* and his contemporaries, or more immediate successors; arranged according to the nature of the organs, commencing with some remarks on general anatomy, and then proceeding to the bones, the muscles, the vessels, &c. This sketch is interesting and judicious; the author having collected the most important facts that related to his subject, seeming to have given to each of them their due share of importance, and having added copious references to the original sources whence he derived his information. We shall give two short quotations, which may form a fair specimen of the merits of the whole. The following are the observations on the knowledge which was, at that time, acquired respecting the nerves :

' *Fallopins* and *Eustachius* are the principal promoters of the school of Italy; they dissipated the obscurity in which we were involved respecting the trigeminal nerves; they established the correct opinion concerning the nerve now called the great sympathetic; and to them likewise we owe many other discoveries. *Coiter* found that the nerves are composed of the thin membrane, and of the medullary substance of the brain; and that the nervous fibrils, when they leave the cranium, are still covered collectively by the *dura mater*. *Piccolomini*, in his considerations on the structure of the nerves, says that they are the canals along which the sensitive soul is conducted to the animal spirits, in the different parts of the body. Every action of this soul is exercised by particular instruments, so that the organs are the immediate and the nerves the remote instruments. The nerves, so far as their structure is concerned, are not destined some for motion and others for sensation, but they are all equally proper for both functions, and they exercise the one or the other of them according to the instrument by which they are transmitted. *Spigelius* also rejects the distinction between the nerves of sensation and those of motion, because the same nerve is often destined for each function. *Varolius* does not think that the optic nerves derive their origin from the basis of the brain, but from some distant part. In the same manner, *Cabrolus* penetrated into the interior of the cerebral organ, in order to search for the origin of the nerves; and, as *Varolius* had done, he pursued the optic nerves into the posterior portion of the brain. The nerves which have obtained the name of *motores oculi* take their origin, according to *Spigelius*, from the spinal marrow. The origin of the nerves in general is determined by *Piccolomini* in the following manner; the brain and the cortical substance produce the circular medulla, which contains the ventricles; this gives origin to the *medulla oblongata*, and these two furnish all the nerves.

As another specimen, we transcribe the account of the spleen :

' *Vesalius*



*Vesalius* examined the spleen in the state of health and of disease, and he compared the human spleen with that of animals. It is long and narrow in hogs, dogs, and oxen; and on this account *Galen*, more conversant with comparative anatomy than with that of man, says that the spleen is long; for the spleen of man is thick, large, and really much shorter than that of other animals. The human spleen is of a dark colour, while it is lighter in dogs, and is almost white in pigs and oxen. *Cabrolus* observed two spleens, one of which gave off a large hæmorrhoidal vein. *G. Bartholin* also saw a body which had more than one spleen. *Aldrovandi* observes that the spleen may be wanting; and *Coiter* says that in general it is not found in birds. As for the structure of the spleen, *Vesalius* remarks that the vessels are not disposed there as in the liver, or the lungs, but that, as soon as they have entered into it, by the right line placed along its interior surface, they are divided into so great a number of small ramifications that they appear to be filaments rather than vessels; and they are, as in the liver, surrounded by congealed blood, called by *Erasistratus* parenchyma. The vessels of the spleen are furnished by the second branch of the *vena portæ*, and a branch is sent off which passes to the bottom of the stomach. The splenic blood, which *Spigelius* describes merely as more thick and more earthy, is considered by *G. Bartholin* as the thick portion of the chyme which the spleen attracts in order to prepare from it the blood proper for the nourishment of the abdominal viscera.—The spleen is one of the viscera which is very often found in a diseased state. *Vesalius* has seen it small, and covered with a white and hard coat, and in other cases very bulky. Its colour is at one time dark, and at another time light. The case of Cardinal *Cibone*, related by *Valverde*, is very curious. This prelate died of a vomiting of blood, and the *vasa brevia* were found so distended that, by compressing the spleen, the blood was made to pass into the stomach; and, reciprocally, the blood repassed into the spleen by a compression made on the stomach.

The volume concludes with short biographical notices of the most distinguished anatomists of modern times, all classed under the general denomination of the Italian school, but arranged under the respective countries to which they belong; viz. Italy, Germany, France, Holland, and Denmark:—those of England are not mentioned, but we presume that they are to appear in the next volume. These biographical sketches are, on the whole, well drawn up; containing the leading facts connected with the literary lives and the writings of the individuals, the discoveries and improvements which they made, and a general account of their most important doctrines and opinions.

We must now take our leave of this work, of which we do not hesitate to speak in terms of commendation. We shall feel anxious to see the completion of it, in which our own country-

countrymen ought to bear a conspicuous part; and we trust that the learning and candour of the author will induce him to assign to them their due rank in the science of which he undertakes to write the history.

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ART. XII. *On the Origin, Nature, Progress, and Influence of Consular Establishments.* By DAVID BAILLIE WARREN, Consul-General of the United States of America at Paris, M.D. Coll. Med. Nov. Ebor. &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 342. Paris. 1813.

OUR readers must not imagine that, because this volume issues from a Parisian press, the office of Consul here discussed is that which was once filled by the great disturber of Europe: it is of a much more pacific character, meaning, in fact, nothing else than such mercantile consulships as are established by the British, the Dutch, the Americans, and other maritime nations, for the accommodation of their shipping in foreign ports. It would have been well if in this respect Dr. WARREN had condescended to be more explicit in the title of his publication; and if he had likewise avoided, in the subsequent pages, a display of erudition which, however appropriate in American eyes to a citizen of "the greatest republic in the world," will hardly be relished or understood by the plain men of business for whose use the book is intended. As the author has also unaccountably omitted a table of contents, we shall at once supply this defect and convey to our readers an idea of the work by making a sketch of the substance of the different chapters.

Chap. 1. Commercial Advantages of the Appointment of Consul. — 2. Its Political Advantages. — 3. No Chapter to this Number. — 4. The Origin of Consular Jurisdiction. — 5. Consuls appointed for the Regulation of internal Trade. — 6. Nature and Extent of the Jurisdiction of Consul. — American Consuls. — Treaties between America and other Countries regarding the Office of Consul. — Form (p. 162.) of a Consul's Commission. — Extracts (p. 174.) respecting Consuls from a Publication of Mr. Monroe, intitled "View of the Conduct of the Executive."

The remaining chapters, seven in number, relate to the consular system of different countries, viz. France, England, Holland, Russia, Denmark, Portugal, and Austria; and the volume concludes with an account of publications by mercantile consuls in different ages and countries.

The last part of the subject can answer very little purpose except in making a display of Dr. WARREN's learning. If, as we rather suspect from different passages, he means to insinuate

nuate that literary habits afford a recommendation for the office of mercantile consul, we beg leave to offer our protest against the doctrine, and to lay it down as a rule that active habits of business are the only proper foundation for such a charge. We cannot, indeed, avoid expressing our surprize that he should indulge (p. 8.) in sarcasms at trade, and the persons engaged in it, when he cannot but have been aware that his readers would be in general of that description. One of the best parts of the treatise is that (p. 100.) which explains the functions of mercantile consul, and discriminates them from those of the higher station of envoy or ambassador. We extract his statement of the salaries of French mercantile consuls in the United States.

‘ The Consul-General is allowed 1300l. sterling, besides his travelling expences, (at the rate of a guinea per stage,) and those of his passage and of his first establishment. The latter is estimated at about one-third of the salary.

‘ The annual salary of the Consul of New York is 750l. Of Charlestown, 750l. Of New Orleans, 750l. Of Boston, 500l. Of Philadelphia, 500l. Of Baltimore, 500l. The Vice Consul of New York, 400l. Other Vice Consuls, 250l.’

These sums are liberal: but we question much whether, like many engagements of the republican government of France, they were not left in a great measure unpaid. We apprehend that the Consuls of other countries have little more emolument than that which arises from the small fees charged on the documents delivered or authenticated by them; the whole yielding a sum barely sufficient in most cases to pay a clerk. The consul looks therefore for his remuneration in the respectability attached to the appointment, and the consequent prospect of increase in his private business.

Dr. W.’s eighth chapter, treating of the Consular System of England, is very brief and inexplicit; owing, probably, to the restricted intercourse of our countrymen with the Continent of Europe at the time (1813) when this book was sent to the press. Is it to this, or to what other cause, that we are to ascribe an habitual neglect of English idioms, and a perpetual recurrence of Gallicisms, in the composition of this writer? These are all objections of consequence, and lessen the utility of the performance; which would otherwise be great, as well from its being one of the first on the subject as from its exhibiting a very considerable stock of information in a moderate compass.

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